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ABSTRACT

This collection of papers on childhood education covers a variety of topics. These include: how to reinforce basic skills with math games; the role of teachers as change agents; incorporating learning centers into the elementary curriculum; the effectiveness of training for empathy in preservice teacher education; responsibilities and needs assessment of teachers in complying with PL 94-142: The Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975; preschool screening as a means of predicting later reading achievement; concept teaching strategies in the elementary school; group play therapy; invented spelling as a transition to reading; the influence of the cooperating teacher on the student teacher; the role of the teacher in fostering the child's self-concept; and the teacher as counselor/helper. (SS)

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COLLECTED PAPERS

1978

INTER-INSTITUTIONAL SEMINAR

IN

CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

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PREFACE

The seventh annual Inter-Institutional Seminar in Childhood Education was sponsored by the six teacher education institutions in the State of Utah and the Utah State Board of Education. The following staff members and the institution they represent were responsible for the planning and conduct of the seminar.

Dr. Philip Carter	Southern Utah State College
Dr. Lloyd E. Eldredge	Utah State Board of Education
Dr. Ruth Gardner	Weber State College
Dr. Arthur D. Jackson	Utah State University
Dr. Ruth Lundgren	University of Utah
Dr. Martha Monroe	Westminster College
Dr. Vern Wade	Brigham Young University

This publication consists of a collection of papers presented during the seminar by participants and faculty members from the participating institutions. Because of the nature of their presentations, all who made presentations did not choose to write a formal paper. Though their presentation is not found in this publication, we are indebted to them for the contribution they made.

We are also indebted to Dr. Lawrence C. Hartlage, Prefessor of Neurology and Pediatrics and Head of Neuropsychology & Learning Disabilities Sections at the Medical College of Georgia, and to his lovely wife, Patricia L. Hartlage, M.D. and Associate Professor of Pediatrics and Neurology at the Medical College of Georgia. It was they, who provided continuity to the seminar and who presented us with information and new ideas for meeting the needs of children who have learning difficulties.

Once again, much of the success of the seminar is a result of the untiring efforts of the staff. Each one has donated his/her time and talents in the planning and conduct of the seminar. The interest, dedication, and enthusiasm of the participants is the final measure of success. We thank all of you.

REINFORCE BASIC SKILLS WITH MATH GAMES

by

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With the "Back to Basics" movement has come renewed stress on drill and practice as a necessary part of the mathematics curriculum. Rather than allow drill to be dull and dreaded, why not use games to provide an alternative to flash cards, practice sheets, and the usual drill activities?

The use of games can result in attitude improvement in a subject too often disliked. The competition involved (though winning is not stressed) also motivates students to respond more quickly, increasing skill in mental computation. Another use of games in the classroom is as a reward for those students who have finished their regular assignments, thus encouraging on-task behavior and providing a worthwhile activity for students who finish early and need to be kept involved. All students should have the opportunity to play games, however, and teachers need to build in times and opportunities for every child.

We know that children learn at different rates and in varying styles; games provide another means of reaching each child. If games can be taken home on occasion, family members can become involved in homework that is both fun and worthwhile.

Games can also provide an opportunity for creative expression. Even very young students can create their own games, and some of the best are student-designed. Involvement by students in this activity fosters enthusiasm and sharpens skills of planning, giving and following directions, and evaluation.

Catalogs of teaching materials show many ready-made games and also materials to make your own. Blank cards, many varieties of dice, spinners, "movers," and game boards can be purchased, as well as clock, multibase block, and coin stamps.

But where does the busy teacher find the time to make games? Enlist the help of aides, parents, and student volunteers, and, again, encourage your students to make their own, adding to the classroom supply of games. Ideas can come from a variety of sources. Idea books can be purchased or borrowed and shared, or you can ask your school or district to add some of these to its professional library. Reading and language games are often easily adaptable. Many commercial games that students have at home can be adapted to become math games; ask parents to save old gameboards whose playing pieces have disappeared. Your district math specialist or supervisor, or teacher of math methods at your local teacher-training institution should be able to provide ideas. One district maintains a "make and take" teacher center where patterns of games, colored pictures of finished products, and copies of instructions can be seen, and where materials are available to construct copies on the spot. Don't overlook professional magazines and the teachers' edition of math texts; the Arithmetic Teacher is an excellent source. Game sessions at local and national conferences sponsored by the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics are usually filled to capacity. You might ask your district to sponsor an inservice workshop.

Games fall into five general categories: card games, board games, Bingo-type games, domino games, and dice games, plus some miscellaneous varieties.

Card games tend to also be grouped into various categories, and often the same set of cards can be used for more than one game. In rummy- or "Authors"-type games, players form sets by drawing from a stack or by passing cards. Bridge-type games have students take tricks by playing cards of highest value. In games like "Old Maid" or "Fish" players work to form sets, losing when a particular "bad" card is drawn. War-type games are played by turning up cards simultaneously and watching for the highest or lowest or matching-value card. Many card decks can also be used as concentration-type games.

Bingo-type games may be prepared in advance, or may be created on the spot. Prepare a small set of "calling" cards with problems to be solved or mathematical expressions to be matched, having 1-1/2 to 2 times as many as there are spaces on the grid (3x3, 4x4, 5x5.) Put answers on the chalkboard or on a transparency, instructing students to choose randomly and fill in a grid they have drawn or folded. Some means of displaying the already-called problems can save repeating. One commercial variety of this game has a sheet of answers on a small square grid; students draw their own boxes around any array, providing randomness. The variety of concepts and types of problems that can be adapted seems endless, and most processes are reversible - you can call "6 times 9" and have the players cover 54, or call "54" and have the players cover 6x9.

Board games come in two varieties: some boards call for specific tasks and others are open-ended, having many different sets of task cards that can be used. Players move by throwing dice, spinning, or drawing cards.

Dominoes can be cut from poster board; different names for the same quantity are matched, and standard rules may be used or adapted.

Dice games can be created by using regular or blank-faced dice. Specialty polyhedra dice are also available. Wooden cubes may be used as a substitute, and, if dice are unpopular with the parents in your community, spinners may be used instead.

Storage, management, and easy access need to be considered. A format is to put games on file folders; the tab indicates the name of the game and is coded to the management system used in your school or district. Small pieces can be stored in glued-on envelopes, in small zip-lock "Baggies" attached with brads, in pockets cut from heavy clear plastic and attached with plastic tape, or stored separately in small parts cabinets available in discount or hardware stores. Games can also be drawn on posterboard or other heavy-weight rigid material. Heavy tablecloth-weight vinyl or pellon can also be used, and these can be stored by being rolled up and placed in cardboard tubes. The extra time and money it takes to laminate or cover boards and cards with clear contact paper is well spent - durability is a must. Clear acrylic spray also provides protection; hairspray is a less expensive substitute. Keys can be made available for students to check each other.

Above all, students need to learn the expected behavior involved in using, playing with, and putting away games and parts. It is frustrating to find pieces and parts scattered around, and be unable to locate something you need because it was put away incorrectly. Practice the game at home first with family or friends, then teach it to a small group of students and have them in turn teach others. Self-control needs to be stressed and reinforced and games should not be an excuse for excessive noise in the classroom.

A few cautions are necessary. Games, like any other good teaching stretegy, should not be overused. Choose and evaluate games very carefully to insure that they serve the purpose for which they were intended. Students need to understand that the purpose of classroom games is to reinforce learning; the fun is built-in and does not require any "selling." Games should not be used to teach a concept; concept-learning should preceed games and arise from contact with physical and visual models. Relays and some large-group activities may not make the best use of time, and preference should be given to games that involve each student, either as a small-group, large-group, or individual activity.

Teachers who use games as an alternate strategy in the classroom report that many positive things happen. Make a few; aim for one new game each week. When your students are happy, school is more fun for the teacher, too!

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CHANGE: WHY AND HOW - PARTS I & II

by

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> At exactly 5:15 a.m., the 18th of April, 1906, a cow was standing somewhere between the main barn and the milking shed on the old Shafter Ranch in California, minding her own business. Suddenly, the earth shook, the skies trembled, and when it was all over, there was nothing showing of the cow above the ground but a bit of her tail sticking up. For the student of change, the Shafter cow is a sort of symbol of our times. She stood quietly enough, thinking such gentle thoughts as cows are likely to have, while huge forces outside her pen built up all around her, and -- within a minute -- discharged it all at once in a great movement that changed the configuration of the earth, and destroyed a city, and swallowed her up. And that's what we are going to talk about now; how, if we do not learn to understand and guide the great forces of change at work on our world today, we may find ourselves like the Shafter cow, swallowed up by the vast upheavals in our way of life -- quite early some morning.[1]

Education is a process of providing the child with those tools needed to survive in their world to come.

> We are told that 25 percent of all the people who ever lived are alive today; that 90 percent of all the scientists who ever lived are living now; the amount of technical information available doubles every ten years; throughout the world, about 100,000 journals are published in more than 60 languages, and the number doubles every 15 years.[2]

Consequently the motto for our times should be: "Subject to change without notice". Change is a subject for children of all ages but of particular concern for the transesent - that person moving from childhood to adult. Change being the very essence of our future, it is in youth that renovation occurs - that time(s) in our lives when we are a stranger to our surroundings; in the midst of a storm that must seek equilibrium. Because all 10 to 14 year olds biologically and socially find themselves in a new world, it is then we, as educators, parents, fellow human beings who must -- must what?

> The past is but the beginning of the beginning, and all that is and has been is but the twilight of the dawn. A day will come when beings who are not latent in our thoughts and hidden in our loins . . . shall laugh and reach out their hands amid the stars.
> H. G. Wells[3]

Must? We must allow them to reach out
their hands amid the stars.

HOW: PART I - 5 S's

Dedicated teachers and those particularly of the middle grades need to assume the role of change agents, to understand the process, be aware of the dangers and build in safeguards.

1. STIMULATE Little change will occur unless the child sees a need. There should be provided exploration, a chance to broaden horizons and discover new options.

Change Agent: The change agent must establish authority and trust, and be willing to make a personal commitment to the child.

Results: Child-initiated desire to change.

2. SIMULATE The ability to step out of the present and into the future, dream. The child learns the process of change, explores possible solutions through models and interaction with others.

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Change Agent: Mediator between the real and not real, the possible and not possible.

Results: Long and short term strategies and objectives to get desired results.

3. SUPPORT The child must believe in his ability to put into action and complete the task.

Change Agent: To provide continual consistent support, some protection, and situations which allow "freedom without punishment if possible".

Results: The ability of the child to take risks.

4. SKILLS The acquisition of skills is a slow process. They are developed with progression as well as regression.

Change Agent: Point out results accomplished and analyze and replan mistakes.

Results: Internalization.

5. SUCCESS Maybe more appropriate reward, the feeling and knowledge that the change is worthwhile, that it has significance.

Change Agent: Helping child to accept success and not fall back into old patterns.

Results: Change becomes its own reward, change becomes a natural process rather than stagnation and frustration.

HOW: PART II

If as teachers we are going to be, as we must, facilitators of change, then we also must change, deal with motion; in short we can't be caught up in "Future Shock".

The importance here lies with the establishment of ourselves as worthy facilitators due the respect and trust of the children we choose to work with. We must do for ourselves those things we are asking the children to do.

1. AWARENESS - We have to expand our vision, watch people, observe how and why they react. Listen to others, listen to ourselves. Try to lessen that gap between the unconscious and the conscious. Read about things you think are absurd or esoteric.
2. DREAM - There must be time, alone time to think, to create within our own minds ideas, goals, and aspirations.
3. TALK - Interact with others, try our dreams out, explore avenues, modify.
4. USE OF NEW KNOWLEDGE - (application) Developmentalists, psychologists, scientists, and educators are constantly coming up with new ideas, new research -- What, turned off? You want the children to change, can you? You are the one, the only one who can put together ideas in such a way, like no other can.

You must explore the future and decide what you want, what you would be most satisfied with, because like the children we work with, their ideas and perceptions become self-fulfilling prophecies.

> 'In our youth lies our future, and, as Rousseau advised in Emile, in 1762, 'Keep your child's mind idle as long as you can.' There is the world of tomorrow; in the dreaming mind of children'. . . And farsighted adults.[4]

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1. Page 1
2. Page 223
3. Page 5
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INCORPORATING LEARNING CENTERS INTO THE ELEMENTARY CURRICULUM

by

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Learning centers occur any place, in and out of the classroom, where students direct themselves or are directed by the teacher toward the pursuit of learning.[1] They may exist as permanent locations for specific purposes; for instance, an arithmetic center; or they may be flexible in their structure. They are designed to encourage students to achieve open choice-making, problem-solving, and creating opportunities by providing them with secure, comfortable and, when possible, natural settings.

Learning centers are often constructed as areas "set aside" for extra-curricular experiences, each with a specific set of directions for students to follow. Unfortunabely, this practice has led some teachers to construct them so that the children can experience them only when their assigned work has been completed. This practice would ultimately exclude many students from ever experiencing a learning center. The centers themselves should be the starting point for children from which subsequent experiences will evolve. Ideally, the activities of learning centers would stem from the childrens' first-hand experiences and needs, and student participation in the centers would not be restricted to specific pre-assignments.

To provide appropriate, as well as stimulating, experiences for your students, learning centers must assume a variety of purposes.

They may be subject-centered, interest-centered, problem-centered, skills-centered, theme-centered, or simply fun-centered. Centers may be constructed for the subjects taught - math, social studies, science, writing, language arts, reading, spelling, or around holidays, and special units, i.e., a butterfly center.

A center may be planned and constructed in advance, as is the usual case, to teach a specific subject-related skill or it may evolve spontaneously due to imput from students or an immediate occurrence. For instance, a butterfly center was set up in my classroom within one day after one of the children brought in a butterfly chrysalis which sparked the other classmates' curiosities. Such a center may consist of a single object, such as the chrysalis, which is set aside on a desk designed to attract and stimulate the interest of children. A center may be composed of an expansive set of related activities clustered at a table, focusing on the development and mastery of specific skills or concepts. Within the primary classroom most of the centers would be teacher or aide-constructed. However, in the intermediate grades, learning centers could be pupil-constructed with the teacher planning and incorporating the centers into the curriculum.

Apprehensive attitudes toward learning centers often arise due to a lack of information related to the advantages of learning centers. What are some advantages of opening up your classroom by using learning centers? One particularly obvious answer is the flexibility that such an arrangement provides. It allows for greater movement and interaction among the students and capitalizes on their individual natural spontaneity. A variety of centers provides diverse settings in which children can work autonomously or in small groups in self-selected experiences.[2] The opportunity to personally select a half-day or daily schedule of activities nourishes and strengthens an individual's decision-making, responsibility and commitment. If a child has the opportunity to choose which learning center to visit, a productive follow-through and attainment of goals is likely. The flexible environment imparts a feeling of freedom which is necessary to open the students' minds and emotions to the pursuit of knowledge, and this will ultimately lay the foundation for future attitudes and behavior toward learning. The relationships with your students and the relationships between the students will have more impact on the effectiveness of the learning taking place in the classroom than will a particular philosophy or approach to teaching and learning.[3]

Another very obvious advantage for the teacher is that his/her role can be centered toward individual and small group teaching. While my students are working at the learning centers, I meet with as many reading groups as I can fit into our half-day open classroom.

In organizing and setting up your version of the open space environment, it is necessary that you construct each learning center in terms of: (1) the characteristics of the children who are to make use of the learning center, and (2) the characteristics of the content and skill to be learned. It is necessary that one keep in mind the following components in planning for the material to be learned in each of the centers:

Your student's familiarity with the material

The complexity of the material

The amount of material

The value of the material to your students

The organization of the material

The construction of your learning centers should embrace materials which the students in your classroom feel will be of benefit to them. Activities should be related to specific and familiar skills and concepts being taught or studied.[4]

Inasmuch as the activities of the learning-centered classroom are to be constructed around the behavior of the students, it is important to evaluate their behavior. Contracts, diaries, and observational anecdotal records may be used to determine pupil progress. A natural transition to assessing their progress may, for example, consist of contractual agreements between you and your students and your observation of their performance in the classroom. Contracts seem to work well for those students who find it difficult to pursue their own goals and interests when no time or production demands are placed upon them. For some children, the commitment recorded by the contract may consist entirely of the students own imput; for others, and I find this especially true with some primary age children, the teacher should take the major responsibility for the decisions to be made. Thus, the nature of each contract would vary from child to child and from objective to objective. According to grade levels, contracts may be very simple or very complex. They may take the form of a handwritten statement: For example, "I will complete the construction of my paper plate clock by __" or they may take the form of a very specific contract available to all students. Some examples are shown in Figures 1-3:

Figure 1:

Primary Reading Contract

Name______________________________ Date ____________________

1. I will listen to ________ recorded stories at the listening center.
2. I will read ________stories out of my basal reader.
3. I will learn ________ new words from the vocabulary cards for my word bank.
4. I will write ________ sentences using my spelling words.

Signed ______________________
Pupil signature

____
Teacher Signature

Figure 2:

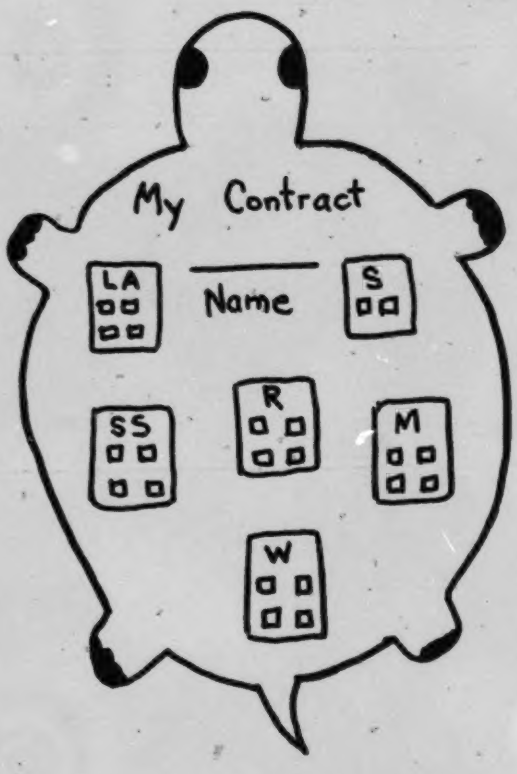
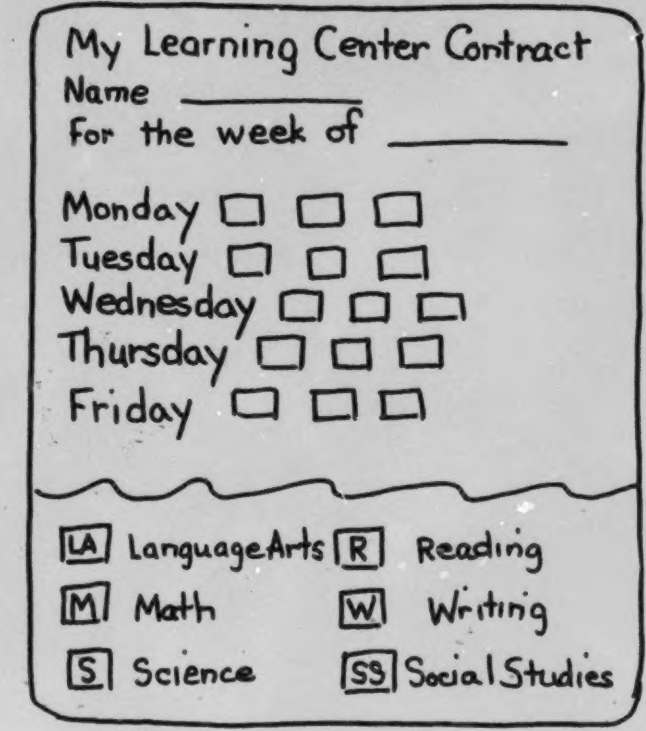


Figure 3:



My Learning Center Contract

Name ________

for the week of ________

Monday ☐ ☐ ☐

Tuesday ☐ ☐ ☐

Wednesday ☐ ☐ ☐

Thursday ☐ ☐ ☐

Friday ☐ ☐ ☐

LA	Language Arts	R	Reading
M	Math	W	Writing
S	Science	SS	Social Studies

For some educators an awareness of the learning center approach is virtually new, while others have witnessed a ten year metamorphosis of open education. I incorporated learning centers into my classroom at the beginning of my first year of teaching. This resulted from a desperate attempt to keep the students whom I wasn't meeting with in a small reading group occupied in working on meaningful tasks. With this format the children circulated around the classroom to different learning centers doing an activity or assignment at each one and moving on until they had completed all of them. This system was an instant success. The children were free to move about the classroom choosing and working at centers of their choice. To dissuade the practice of avoiding particular centers, I required that the students visit every center at least once during the course of a week. Activities for centers change each week, but specific concepts carry on for several weeks.

Since that first year, when I plunged whole-heartedly into the learning center approach, I have been perpetually stimulated and reinforced by my students' excitement and success in utilizing the centers and by the excitement and support of fellow educators.

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The Effectiveness of Training for Empathy in Pre-Service Teacher Education

by

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One component of personality which has been established as a facilitated trait in producing meaningful interpersonal experiences is empathy.[1,2,3] Empathy is "listening to another person in a manner in which we put ourselves into the frame of reference of another so that the other person's thinking, feeling and behaving are completely understood, even to the point of being predictable".[4] The utilization of empathy in interpersonal relationships has been stressed in the fields of psychology[5] and psychiatry.[6] The facilitative effect that empathy has on interpersonal relations has generated research in areas such as empathy discrimination training[7] and the development of empathy scales to measure differences in the tendency to assume similarity between oneself and others.[8] Research and training on empathy have been aimed at more effective interpersonal interaction in terms of a therapeutic relationship between the counselor and his client. The usefulness of empathy in interpersonal interactions has also been established in the business and personnel fields. Empathy is also considered to be useful as a means of improving teacher-student interpersonal relationships, thus producing a more meaningful and productive learning environment.[9]

In Developing Teacher Competencies in Interpersonal Transactions, Kurpius[4] pointed out that if the teacher is unable to understand how the student feels and how he or she is experiencing a given situation, a barrier in the relationship between the student and the teacher may begin to develop. If, however, the teacher understands the student's feelings and how he or she is experiencing the situation, the outcome of that interaction can be more meaningful and productive for both the student and the teacher. The importance of this understanding is borne out in a study by Robert C. Cornwall.[10] Students were asked to view problems of classroom instruction in general "as perceived by the teacher." Specifically, they were to list what they considered to be problems, obstacles, and concerns of the instructors. Similarly, the teacher was to consider classroom instruction from the student's position. Students and teachers made lists, and the items were discussed in class. In reporting his findings, Cornwall states two main benefits arose as a result of this exercise. The first was that all persons involved seemed to have developed a better understanding of the concept of empathy. The second benefit was the new insights students and teachers gained about each other.

Empathy training has also been studied in the teacher education field.[4] One such study considered the need to provide empathy training for teachers of young impoverished children and for those who help these children's families.[11] Before and after the training program, subjects were instructed to write down what they would say, in response to tape recorded helpee stimulus expressions, in order to be helpful. Their responses were rated on a five point empathic communication scale which measures the accuracy with which a subject can reflect the affective expressions of another person. The trainees' posttest scores improved from "a mean starting level of essentially shutting out others' affective expressions to a level of reflective responses to others' feelings."

Another study of the effects of an empathy training program for teachers was conducted by Dustin.[12] In order to establish a better relationship between school teachers and school counselors, a five-day workshop was conducted to determine: (a) whether counselors and teachers improved their statements, as to the degree of empathy expressed, as a result of limited training, and (b) whether counselors improved more than teachers. Using Carkhuff's five point empathic communication scale, subjects were rated as to the degree of empathy expressed on a 15-minute recorded interview. One interview was taken before the workshop started and another the last day of training. The interviews were then rated by three experienced raters. In discussing his findings, Dustin states that "the interesting finding is that the teachers and counselors did not differ significantly in their empathy skills." It was concluded that the training was effective in improving the degree of empathy expressed on the 15-minute taped interviews.

It has been determined that empathic communication has promise as a useful means of improving teacher-student interpersonal relationships, thus producing a more meaningful and productive learning environment.

That empathy training is effective in teaching empathic skill and essential to the teacher education process has been strongly claimed in *Empathy: A Search for New Direction in Canadian Teacher Education*.[13] Halamandaris stated, "a lack of responsible balance between skill-competence and empathy-competence may result in the teacher considering the transmission of cognitive skills as his sole responsibility." This claim is supported in an article by McMurrin[14] discussing "The Affective Function of Instruction". McMurrin concludes that a combination of content and affective instruction are essential to effective education. A useful first step in attaining this affective instruction may well be to teach teachers to understand empathy and to be able to make empathic responses.

In order to facilitate a meaningful interaction between the teacher and the student, empathy training programs have been developed. However, these programs have not been a part of the initial teacher training process. The present investigation seeks to determine the effectiveness of a training program for prospective teachers, which would enable them to develop empathy behaviors on three increasingly complex training levels as described by Borg.[15]

Experiment

Method

Sample. The accessible population for this study were teacher trainees in Education at Utah State University enrolled in Elementary Education 100 during Winter quarter 1976. The sample consisted of three class sections, one with 25 students, one with 9 students, and one with 27 students, of Elementary Education 100. The students in the classes were both male and female, and all were Education majors. The students who participated in the study were in intact groups made available through the Department of Elementary Education. The control group consisted of 27 students, and the experimental group consisted of 34 students.

Procedure. The nonequivalent control group design was used in this study. First, although it was impossible to randomly assign the students to the class sections because of schedule conflicts, the classes were randomly assigned as experimental and control groups. Second, a pretest (Exercise in Empathic Communication) was administered to the students in both the experimental and control groups. Third, the training program was presented to the experimental group. Lastly, after the treatment was administered, all students in both groups received the posttest.

The training program was self instructive with the exception of an hour long orientation and a 2-hour discussion in class. The orientation consisted of (a) an overview of the training program, (b) an explanation of the purpose of the study, and (c) a brief discussion of empathic communication in the school setting. The group discussion included (a) a discussion on discrimination between the concepts of empathy and sympathy, (b) role playing experience in which teacher trainees assumed the roles of the student and the teacher. In these the student would present the teacher with a verbal communication, thereupon, the teacher would exercise his or her empathic skills in responding to the student's statement. These responses were then rated by the observing class members on the five point empathy scale and a discussion of their content was carried out. And (c) finally, a question and answer period was conducted to clarify any problems pertaining to the training program.

The self instructive portion of the training consisted of an empathy training manual which included exercises aimed at developing an increased amount of empathic skill in the student. Three training levels described by Borg[15] were utilized. First, the definition level was covered. In this level the concepts of content (verbal message) and intent (feeling and emotions) as expressions of empathy were discussed, and the student was introduced to the five point empathy scale. The second level was the recognition level in which the student developed skills to aid him/her in recognizing empathic statements made by others. The third level, emittance level, provided the student with the opportunity to respond to student statements with the highest level of empathy possible.

The raters were three graduate students' wives who were paid for their work. The process of training the raters consisted of (a) an orientation meeting which included an explanation of the study and an introduction to the five point empathy scale, and (b) practice rating sessions with discussion and clarification after each rating exercise. These practice rating sessions were conducted until a constant 80 percent consensus of rating agreement was reached. This criterion was established after three 2-hour training sessions. Another consensus check was made half way through the ratings of the actual research data. At that point a consensus of 87 percent was being maintained. Consensus computed at the end of the rating showed an overall rater agreement of 85 percent.

Instruments. The pretest and posttest consisted of 20 printed student statements. These student statements were adapted from a recent study by Cornwall[10] in which he invited students to list "problems, obstacles, and concerns of the student as perceived by the students." The subjects in the control and experimental groups responded to each student statement in writing. These responses were rated by trained raters on Carkhuff's five point empathy scale.

The Carkhuff five point empathy scale has been used in many studies on empathy training. Validity data on this scale has been established in extensive process and outcome research on counseling and psychotherapy. In a discussion on the validity of the five point empathy scale, Truax and Carkhuff[1] state:

> Establishing validity raises the question: Does the scale measure what it purports to measure? Does the empathy scale measure empathy or something else? That kind of question is more difficult to answer in any clear fashion. The reader can assess the face validity of the scale itself as he reads them. Beyond that, we know from the evidence cited in the next chapter (chpt 3) that these scales are significantly related to a variety of client therapeutic outcomes.[1]

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Results

The specific hypothesis of this study stated: there will be a significant difference between mean scores on a measure of empathic verbal response of Education majors at Utah State University enrolled in a teacher training program that includes a training program on emitting empathic behavior, as compared with similar education majors in a program that does not include training on emitting empathic behavior. To test this hypothesis, the statistical method used was an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), in which the posttest means are compared using the pretest means as the covariate.

There were 34 subjects in the experimental group and 27 subjects in the control group. All 34 members of the experimental group completed the empathy training program at criterion level. Table 1 gives the unadjusted and adjusted means for pre and posttest scores for the rated responses as recorded on the Exercise in Empathic Communication. Table 2 gives the ANCOVA for the same rated responses as found on the Exercise in Empathic Communication comparing experimental and control groups' pre and posttest mean scores.

Table 1

Summary Table of Unadjusted and Adjusted Means
for Pre and Posttest Scores of Rated Responses Found
on the Exercise in Empathic Communication using ANCOVA

Group	Unadjusted Means	Adjusted Means
Exp.	179.1176	179.1752
Control	60.77778	60.70524

Table 2

Summary Table of Analysis of Covariance for Pre and Posttest Scores Based on Rated Responses on the Exercise in Empathic Communication

Source	DF	MS	ADJ-F
TRT.	1	209519.8	689.9635
REG.		31.45640	.1035882
ERR.	58	303.6679	

Note: For significance at the 0.05 level, F = 4.08 with 1 and 58 DF.

The adjusted means varied significantly one from another, a fact which is clearly reflected in the large F ratio (note: for significance at the 0.05 level of significance, F = 4.08 with 1 and 58 DF). Using the rated responses found in the Exercise in Empathic Communication as a measure of empathic understanding the hypothesis stated above was not rejected. Thus, it was concluded that this data indicates a significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in understanding empathy and emitting empathic responses as a result of the experimental treatment.

The treatment did produce a significant difference favoring posttest over pretest scores on a measure of empathic response at the .05 level of significance. Thus, training on empathy was effective in terms of teaching trainees enrolled in a teacher education program to understand empathy and to emit empathic responses.

Discussion

The results of this research have pertinent implications for the practical education training process. The study shows that empathic skills, which have been determined to be facilitative in improving communication between the student and the teacher, can be integrated into the teacher education setting with effective results.

Theoretical Implications

1. The training program included a combination of didactic instruction, group interaction, and use of previously validated research scales. As expected from earlier research by Berenson, Carkhuff, and Myrus,[16] this combination of training methods proved very effective in terms of the acquisition of empathic communicative skills.

2. The present research findings support the theoretical expectations that extensive, long term training programs are not necessary in order to teach subjects to communicate at a minimal empathic level.[17]

3. One of the basic assumptions behind the present study was that a facilitative level of empathic functioning does not typically exist for persons engaged in everyday interpersonal communication, such as in the classroom setting. Carkhuff[3] suggested that in order to communicate the minimal empathic level, training on empathy would be necessary. The results of this study support this assumption. Training was necessary for all subjects included in this study in order to function at the minimum level on the five point empathic communication scale.

In conclusion, it is suggested that the value of further investigation involving follow-up study on the retention and impact in the classroom of learned empathic skills is of practical value. The results of such research investigations are not only theoretically interesting because they extend the application of therapeutic intervention to the educational setting, but have also immediate application in practical instruction.

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PL 94-142 -- THE DEAN'S PROJECT RESPONDS

by

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A lot of anxiety exists in educational circles these days because of PL 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act.[1] Much of the concern relates to an eagerness to comply with the regulations imposed by the law and the accompanying myriad of forms. Teachers certainly don't want to be taken to court because they have overlooked some procedure or failed to fill out the required paper work. As a result of this anxiety, most of the attention to date has been law directed, rather than child directed.[2]

If we step back from the forms and regulations for a moment and reconsider the reason the law was passed in the first place--to extend to handicapped children the same rights to an appropriate education as their "normal" peers--then possibly we can look more objectively at what is required and get on with what we do best--teaching young children--so that all students can reach their fullest potential.

The Dean's Project at the University of Utah has been attempting to take such a perspective in order to support faculty members who find themselves in a precarious position--that of training perspective educators to work with handicapped children in a regular class setting. The project was developed to encourage college faculty to add content in dealing with handicapped students to educational preparation curriculum and to develop new classes if necessary. All areas of professional preparation are affected. This includes educational administration, educational psychology, school counseling, general education, and media specialist training programs. The handicapped students, defined by PL 94-142, include those who are mentally retarded, hard of hearing, deaf, speech impaired, visually handicapped, seriously emotionally disturbed, orthopedically handicapped, other health impaired or who demonstrate specific learning disabilities.

States have begun to provide the required services and the federal government has appropriated extensive monies to assist in implementation. Because of PL 94-142, educators are being given opportunities which for some are very unique and creative, but for others will just be "old hat." In all cases, however, we will be reminded that the first responsibility is to provide the best education possible for all students. Looking at some very specific information about PL 94-142 will enable us to get a closer look at these opportunities.

The legislation first of all, is the result of Congress realizing that another minority, the handicapped, were being denied rights guaranteed to them by the constitution. Of the 8 million handicapped children in the U.S., one million were found to be totally excluded from education. More than 50% of the handicapped children were not receiving full equality in educational opportunity. In addition, many handicapped children in regular classrooms were not being identified.[3]

Mainstreaming is the popular term for the inclusion of the handicapped student in the regular classroom. However, "least restrictive environment" is the term used in the law. Whether this means participation of the child in the regular classroom activities will depend upon the unique educational needs of each individual child. It is important to realize that "least restrictive environment" does not mean that severely handicapped children will be dumped for the entire day in the regular classroom. What it could mean is that a severely handicapped child might be removed from an institution and placed in a public school special education program if that is the most appropriate setting. It could also mean that a mildly handicapped child might be transferred from a special class in a public school to a resource room for part of the day and a regular classroom for the remainder. It may mean a student will be removed from the regular classroom because the support services provided by the special education teachers, speech pathologist, counselor, etc. are clearly not sufficient to meet the child's individual needs. In all cases, it is assumed that the institution of learning, whether elementary school or university, will provide easy access to buildings so that those students with physical limitations will no longer be denied an education. It can be seen, then, that what is available can no longer be the determiner for placement decisions Instead, they will be determined by the child's needs and program. A qualified team consisting of educators, support personnel, parents, and administrators, will cooperate in making these decisions.

But what are the responsibilities of general educators in complying with PL 94-142? Will they be required to provide that handicapped student any and all services provided other students? Yes. There may have to be some classroom adaptions--for example, making aisles wide enough for wheelchairs, placing hearing impaired students in the front of class, cutting down on the amount of visual stimulation for a distractable student. But as was stated before, educators will have the support of a whole group of experts: special educators, recreational specialists, speech therapists, counselors, psychologists and media specialists. These professionals will work together to meet the unique needs of the handicapped student. However, it is not our intent to give the impression that the teacher will be making all the adjustments for the inclusion of a handicapped student in a regular classroom. Another important participant, after all, is the student who will be joining the class. If a team of experts has agreed that the most appropriate place for a given student to maximize his/her educational potential is in the regular classroom setting, then it must be assumed that the student is indeed capable of such participation. Thus, it is the student's responsibility to make sure that his/her needs are made known.

Early identification is another important factor in effective educational planning for the handicapped. It is also an important component of Public Law 94-142. In many cases, classroom teachers are the primary sources for the early identification of handicapping conditions. Therefore, a general knowledge of characteristics of handicapped persons appears useful.[4] This will provide a sense of awareness of the commonalities of all learners and yet a sensitivity to individual differences. Nationally, Dean's Projects are attempting to insure that students get some of this general information before they receive their degrees and their certification. Districts, in conjunction with state boards of education, are providing similar inservice training for their faculties. This preparation is also mandated by the law. You cannot teach handicapped children if you, yourself, are frightened to death of them, or think you know nothing about them. Professional training programs cannot prepare students to work with the handicapped if faculty members feel no confidence in this area. The realization that one's present skills have applicability to the handicapped (i.e. individualizing instruction and locating materials appropriate to different modalities) has enabled some reluctant professionals to effectively work with such students.

Public Law 94-142 specifies that each handicapped student must have an Individual Educational Plan (IEP). The IEP includes: a list of academic and behavioral objectives for an individual student, based on his or her strengths and weaknesses, justification for those objectives, activities to meet the objectives, and evaluation procedures. This plan will be developed by a team. In a cooperative effort, the team will plan, program, implement, and evaluate an educational program for each handicapped child.

In summary, the law stipulates: 1) placement of the handicapped in the most appropriate setting, 2) adaptions for certain handicapping conditions, 3) assistance in the identification of handicapped students, 4) an Individual Educational Plan for each handicapped student, 5) preservice and inservice training.

In addition the law has several other important components. First of all, it provides certain safeguards to the parent, child, and school personnel against inappropriate placement. This is known as Due Process. Included in the Due Process procedures is an impartial hearing if some question of placement arises. Second, the law calls for nondiscriminatory testing and evaluation which is culturally unbiased and provided in the person's native language or mode of communication. Third, more than one evaluation procedure must be given before placement can be determined. Fourth, the law provides for a citizen's advisory board. This board must include handicapped individuals, teachers, and parents of handicapped students. Its purpose is to provide input to local education agencies on the needs of the handicapped. Fifth, the law provides monies for the development and the dissemination of materials that can be used in working with the handicapped child.

Section 504 of the Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1973[5] is another important factor to consider in understanding Public Law 94-142. 504 protects the civil rights of all handicapped Americans and stipulates that institutions receiving federal monies will lose that money if they discriminate against the handicapped. With the implementing regulations and enforcement provisions of 504, PL 94-142 can provide greater opportunity for the physically and mentally handicapped to have access to, and participate in, those activities that are enjoyed by the majority of American citizens--to be able to attend school, to observe cultural and artistic events, and to hold jobs.[6] Every section of Public Law 94-142 is aimed at including the handicapped citizen as an individual in this society. Educators can have a great impact in enabling this law to be a positive, creative and exciting factor in the educational scene.

Dean's Project on Curriculum Revision

PL 94-142 illustrates the urgency of curriculum revision at both preservice and inservice levels. The Dean's Projects' efforts at such revision began in August 1975. It was based primarily on a field needs assessment of educational professionals, combined with curriculum analysis within the various departments in the Graduate School of Education. The needs assessment was conducted in the Jordan, Salt Lake, and North Summit School Districts during the 1975-76 academic year. Matheson, Granite and Jordan Headstart programs, as well as the Holladay United Church of Christ Preschool were used to obtain early childhood input.

Over 300 questionnaires were mailed to educational professionals to determine their participation in educational programming for handicapped children. Psychologists, media specialists, counselors, principals, and special educators were surveyed, along with general educators at the preschool, elementary, and secondary levels. In addition, Project Staff cooperated with the Utah Association for Children with Learning Disabilities in designing a "parent questionnaire." Parents of learning disabled children expressed their concerns and attitudes with regard to the quality and quantity of services received by learning disabled students.

73% of the early childhood teachers responded to the professional questionnaire, 58% of elementary teachers and 31% of secondary teachers. Fifty-one parents returned their surveys.

From the data obtained from classroom teachers, seven questions deemed most significant for teacher educators have been chosen for discussion. They are:

1. Are teachers involved where mainstreaming is implemented?
2. Are teachers members of program and evaluation teams?
3. Do teachers individualize for students with special needs?
4. Do teachers suggest activities and materials for parents?
5. Were classes included in professional training to enable

teachers to work with handicapped students?

6. Should teachers be trained to work with exceptional children and should classes be a required part of preservice training programs?
7. Are teachers informed about recent special education legislation?

The responses of the teachers are indicated on the following pages along with implications for teacher preparation and inservice training.

Mainstreaming Involvement

The majority of educators in the sample (Preschool teachers--100%, Elementary teachers--97%) stated that they were involved in schools where mainstreaming is implemented. This appears to indicate an increase in the number of contacts regular educators are having with handicapped students. PL 94-142 will undoubtedly increase that number even more. Thus, more educators will be encountering more special students, including some students who have previously been excluded because of such obvious physical handicaps as blindness, deafness, or other health related problems. These facts raise the question as to whether educators are professionally prepared for such students.

Team Participation

100% of the preschool teachers and 93% of the elementary teachers were members of programming and evaluation teams for special students. These are the individuals who will participate in the writing of IEP's. However, the vital question remains as to whether these teachers possess the necessary skills to determine the most appropriate curriculum for the handicapped students and the manner in which curriculum can be most effectively implemented in a regular classroom setting. It also rasies the issue of whether these teachers (and other educational professionals) have the necessary interpersonal skills to communicate and work cooperatively with other team members.

Individualization

Do teachers individualize for students with special needs? All teachers questioned indicated that they do. There may still exist, however, the need for a more sophisticated level of skills, considering the unique needs of many of the students teachers will be encountering. Teachers, as a group, may be unable to personalize instruction for handicapped students because of insufficient training in individualizing for such special, large classloads, insufficient preparation time and unfamiliarity with special materials. Hopefully advanced university preparation, as well as district inservice programs, will increase awareness of special materials and provide other types of training to enable teachers to effectively individualize for special students.

Parents

The vast majority of teachers (Preschool--100%, Elementary--93%) indicated that they do suggest materials for parents to use at home with children having special learning needs. This response then raises the question of whether teachers are, in fact, skilled in working with parents of exceptional children and whether they are able to adapt regular classroom materials for use by parents at home.

Professional Training

Slightly over half of the preschool and elementary teachers

(Preschool--58%, Elementary--61%) indicated they had some training in working with children with special needs. However, it should be noted that the breadth and depth of the training provided is unknown, as well as whether it was specific to certain handicapping conditions. PL 94-142 mandates preservice training for regular educators to assist them in working with mainstreamed handicapped students. Hence, all educators, not just some of them, must be trained in this area.

Necessity of Training

All groups agreed (Preschool and Elementary educators both 97%) that classes dealing with the needs of handicapped students should be a required part of a preservice preparation program. One reason for the high response may be related to the already increased number of such students in regular school settings. The issues to be raised here include: type of training, amount of training, and content of the training programs. In other words, what kinds of experiences do students need to be able to serve handicapped individuals? Clearly this question places a tremendous responsibility on university training programs to prepare teachers to serve handicapped students in regular settings.

Legislation

Both elementary and early childhood educators indicated (Preschool--9%, Elementary--14%) that they were unfamiliar with recent special education legislation. Classroom teachers will need to become more aware of such legislation if they are to understand their increased legal responsibilities as well as their rights. The responsibility of identifying and servicing handicapped students is accompanied with the right to expect a resource team to assist in planning and implementing the IEP in a regular class setting. It also includes the right of due process for teachers when they believe that obligations to the children are not being met.[7]

Preservice and Inservice Needs

The specific topics considered valuable for the preservice and inservice training of teachers who will encounter special students are indicated below. It should be noted that all of the topics are related to specific requirements of PL 94-142: individualization, teaming, working with parents, and of course, educational planning. Topics in each list are rank ordered, with number 1 being considered most valuable.

Preservice Training Topics

1. How to individualize.
2. Working with parents.
3. Classroom management.
4. Communication skills.
   Field experiences.
5. General information on handicapping conditions.

Inservice Training Topics

1. General information on handicapping conditions.
2. Assessment of instructional materials.
3. Classroom management.
4. Formal and informal testing techniques.
5. Curriculum Planning.

In addition, there is presented the list of skills[8] which parents of learning disabled children wanted strengthened in the classroom teacher. These topics, too, are rank, ordered with number 1 being the skill most in need of strengthening.

1. Ability to identify the learning disabled child.
2. Attitude toward the learning disabled child's needs and potentials.
3. Ability to individualize curriculum.

4. Classroom discipline.
5. Communication with students.
6. Communication with parents.
7. Knowledge of curriculum content.

It appears that professionals and parents agree that educators are in need of additional training in the areas of understanding the handicapped student, planning suitable curriculum which will meet the student's individual learning needs, managing a classroom and of communicating effectively with students, parents and colleagues.

The Graduate School of Education at the University of Utah is currently responding to the law and the needs of working professionals by incorporating these topic areas in all of its educational training programs. Both individual and interdepartmental efforts are underway. Curriculum development will continue in all departments as faculty strive to prepare their graduates (and themselves) for the exciting and challenging experience of "placing each handicapped child in his or her least restrictive environment."[9]

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PRESCHOOL SCREENING AS A MEANS OF PREDICTING LATER READING ACHIEVEMENT

by

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For the past eight years, the Weber School District in Utah has conducted a preschool screening program for the purpose of identifying children with potential learning problems before they enter school, and then to provide them with a compensatory educational experience. As an identification instrument, the Denver Developmental Screening Test (DDST) is administered to all children in the district as they are registered for kindergarten in the spring before they enter school. The DDST can be administered by individuals without extensive training in psychological testing, and requires about 10 to 20 minutes per child. Parents of children who show developmental delays, as assessed by the screening test, are advised to enroll them in a pre-kindergarten session that is held in the district during the summer. Not all of the students who are recommended for the session actually do attend.

The pre-kindergarten sessions are held during the month of June in three of the district's twenty-four elementary schools. The curricular emphasis varies somewhat with each teacher, but is generally similar to Head Start and other pre-school programs whose purpose is to develop and prepare children for school. All teachers include activities to help children gain social interaction skills, develop language ability, visual and auditory discrimination, gross and fine motor skills.

In the summer of 1977, a study was undertaken to determine if Denver Developmental Screening Test scores predicted the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test scores of primary grade students. The study also measured the relation of attendance at the Weber District pre-kindergarten program on the reading achievement of the primary grade students. The unique contribution of the four sections of the screening test as well as age, sex and grade level of the student in prediction of reading achievement was investigated.

Population and Sample

The population consisted of primary grade students in the Weber School District. The sample was stratified to include approximately equal numbers of students from each of the first, second, and third grades. The sample was randomly selected from five of the elementary schools in the district. The elementary schools were selected to be representative of geographical as well as urban and rural settings in the county. A total of 351 students for whom scores on both the Denver Developmental Screening Test and the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test were available were included in the study. Parental permission to use their child's records for this study was obtained. A cross sectional correlational design was used.

Instrumentation

The Denver Developmental Screening Test was developed by Frankenbury, Dodds, and Fandall of the University of Colorado Medical Center. It is made up of 105 tasks or items that are written for the range of accomplishments of children in the age span from birth to six years. There are four sections: Personal-Social, Fine Motor-Adaptive, Language, Gross Motor. It was developed for the purpose of meeting the need of having a simple, useful tool to aid in the discovery of children with developmental problems. It is used in Head Start programs, community health programs, and has gained popularity among pediatricians and other health workers. The test is administered by the school nurse in the school in which the child expects to enter kindergarten. Twenty-seven items that are appropriate for the age of the children entering school are used.

The Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests (Primary A, B, C) are administered to all primary grade children in the district each year. They are administered in a group setting, by classroom teachers under the direction of district personnel.

The Reading Tests were developed by Arthur I. Gates and Walter MacGinitie at Teachers College, Columbia University. They are a graded series of tests intended for use at a specific grade level. The primary grade tests used in this study consist of two parts, Vocabulary and Comprehension. They can be administered individually or in a group, and function best as a survey test.

Findings

Results from the data showed a significant correlation (.001) between Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test scores and DDST total scores for all three grade levels. The relationship, however, was not strong enough to provide practical significance. The correlation was highest for first grade students and lowest for those in the third grade.

There was no significant difference in the ability of the Denver Developmental Screening Test to predict reading scores for children in the highest and lowest quartile of the Gates-Macginitie Reading Tests. These results were in contrast to differences expected because of the positive skewness found in scores on the screening test.

The mean scores of the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test for those children attending the pre-kindergarten session were lower in all grades for either the children recommended for the pre-kindergarten but not attending, or for those children not recommended for the preschool. The attendance at preschool did not make a significant difference in reading achievement of the primary grade students.

The Fine Motor-Adaptive section was the best single predictor of reading achievement at all grade levels. The Language section made a significant unique contribution for the third grade and first grade. Gross Motor and Personal-Social sections did not make a significant contribution to prediction at any grade level. Sex contributed less as a predictor of reaching achievement as children progressed in school. The contribution of age at the time of the DDST to prediction of reading achievement was not statistically significant at any grade level.

Conclusions

The Denver Developmental Screening Test has very limited value as a screening tool for preschool identification of children with potential reading difficulties. As the group recommended for the pre-kindergarten session after DDST screening did have a significantly lower reading achievement level than the group not recommended, it can alert the examiner to the need for further investigation. However, the correlation is too low for practical significance for accurate individual prediction of reading achievement.

The screening program in the Weber School District could be modified in several ways: (1) Include only those items of the DDST that significantly identified children with later learning problems. For example, the Fine Motor-Adaptive section achieved almost as high a correlation as the screening test did as a whole. (2) In order to increase the predictive validity of the screening program, better measures of language development than the items on the DDST Language section should be included. Research by Jansky and de Hirsch (1972) Ilg and Ames (1965), and Chomsky (1976) give support to language ability as a predictor of later reading achievement.

Changes in the compensatory educational program of the district could increase its value to the children who are recommended for attendance. Recent research by Ryan (1976), Seitz (1977), and Lazar (1977) cites successful early intervention programs. The programs were of a longer duration than the four-week summer program in this study, and had best results when a follow-up program was continued into the primary grades.

Finally, broad variations in the district primary grade program could further increase the value of a preschool screening program. Ilg and Ames (1965) cited a varied age entrance into school, an additional year between kindergarten and first grade for some students and working with parents to aid them in giving their children the early experiences important to success in school learning.

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LOCAL CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

by

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Teachers are characteristically consumers of curricula. The materials used in most classrooms originate from selections made at the publishers' tables or from state curriculum guides. Classroom materials prior to 1960 were generally products of one or a few authors, but with the Russian space feats of the late 1950's a major change in production of curricula was stimulated. The United States responded with massive Federal funding for improvement of science curricula and as a result individually produced materials of the past evolved to the team produced materials we are now using in the classroom. From 1960 to the present teachers have become consumers of these team produced materials.

Concerns for Federal involvement in curriculum development was highlighted by Representative John B. Canlan (R-Arizona) on April 4, 1975 when he criticized MACOS (Man A Course of Study) during the house floor debate on NSF authorization (1). In September, 1975 the National Council on Educational Research (NCER) passed the following resolution (Council Resolution No. 09187519.3):

> The Council requests the Director to arrange, if possible in conjunction with others, such as the National Science Foundation and Chief State Control Officers, for the preparation of contending, informed "briefs" on the value of curriculum change as an aid to schools, for systematic public discussion of the briefs, and for the preparation of recommendations to the Federal Government as future funding policy in the area (2).

A NIE Curriculum Development Task Force appointed in November 1975 sought to accomplish the intent of the above resolution. Several conclusions pertinent to this paper were reached by the task force:

1. There is a general desire to be consulted and involved in the making of curricular decisions. Who should make the decisions seems to take priority over the question of what shall be taught.

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2. This concern for involvement is accompanied by a feeling that an individual or small group is important in the development process.
3. The designated arena form resolution of dilemas is clearly local (3).

These feelings may in part reflect a generally more mature teaching profession. The lower turnover and desire to work on curricula now provides an opportunity for in-service training in curriculum development.

WHERE TO BEGIN

One of the first team approaches to developing science curricula was initiatied by Biological Sciences Curriculum Study (BSCS) in Boulder, Colorado. This group has very successfully produced numerous high school level biology materials. The United States along with nearly 70 other nations consume these materals. Science teachers worldwide are familiar with the science alphabet soups: CHEMS, PSSC, AAAS, SCIS, ESS, BSCS.

Now that the possibility of curriculum development is being passed to the local scene, teachers are beginning to ask, "How do you go about developing a curriculum?" First, let me give my definition of curriculum. We are talking about planned learning experiences. With this definition you as a teacher are the curriculum developers, if you use a textbook, Curriculum Guide, or if you create your own materials. Ultimately the teacher decides the curriculum.

The current dilemma really centers around creating new curricula, or adapting existing curricula designed to meet specific local needs. The Me Now and Me and My Environment science programs for the mentally handicapped have demonstrated how easily teachers can become curriculum developers (4). The BSCS Elementary School Sciences Program, as published by the J.B. Lippincott Company, has utilized similar strategies. An expanded model based on the BSCS approach has been used by this author in situations ranging from teacher developed primary language arts to college level nursing school curricula.

Personal experience with the above named programs has convinced me that teachers can produce excellent programs, programs related to student interests and concerns and programs that contribute to learning. Many locally produced units are now being used in our schools. Three groups of teachers in one school district recently produced materials for a primary language arts program, a junior secondary outdoor education program, and a humanities 10 course in one year. A group of nurses used the same model to revise a two year curriculum for training nurses. These development experiences do not happen overnight. Much time must be committed for effective curriculum development to occur. Finding the needed time continues to be a major problem for school districts desiring to develop their own curricula. This author feels a complete training experience for teachers or supervisors may involve over one hundred hours of interaction.

In the creation of a new curriculum one begins by looking at the factors which may influence a proposed program. At BSCS this is done under the direction of an adivsory committee consisting of experts from various disciplines. Members of the committee should include individuals with backgrounds in psychology, reading, etc. in addition to experts in the discipline. Locally, such a committee should certainly include supervisors of instruction and principals plus the all important classroom teacher.

In the early stages of development it is vital that a number of writers also be involved in planning. In the local situation this means teachers. They discuss many factors which could influence development of a program. These factors include nature of the discipline, pupil needs and interests, societal expectations, value systems, economics, political and educational climates, nature of the teacher, learning theory, existing curricula, discipline interactions, geographic peculiarities, and publisher expectations. Such factors need to be brought into focus and discussed before one can formulate a philosophy for a curriculum.

A very vital aspect of the early stages of planning is the resolution of differences between what curriculum planners think is important and real student interests and needs. Built into the BSCS development model is the opportunity for the curriculum developer to state what the student should be like when he emerges from the learning experience. This is balanced by the students having opportunity to influence the "should be" as the curriculum is field tested. Often writer expectations are revised by student feedback. Teacher experience with students in the target population is vital for initial planning to be realistic.

An individual's feelings about expected student behaviors are closely related to a personal philosophy. The next stage in the curriculum development experience is to examine personal philosophies of the writers and then assimilate them into a composite philosophy for the proposed curriculum. This philosophy should be in tune with school district philosophy. The curriculum eventually generated should reflect statement of philosophy.

In the BSCS experience the advisory committee proceeds to generate a general model related to the stated philosophy. Such models tend to be multi-faceted. Facets may include aspects such as process skills, cognitive domain, scope and sequence, etc.

The philosophy and the model are organizers for writing objective frameworks. Generally the writing of objective frameworks has been the responsibility of writing teams consisting of individuals with a mixture of talents. It has been found effective to pair teachers with theoreticians(university types).

The goal is to have a team with diverse talents and a foundation group with much experience teaching target population children.

Experience indicates that an objective framework is vital to production of an organized curriculum. The objective framework may produce a range of experiences varying from unstructured to highly structured, from student centered to teacher centered, but always provides a logical organizer for the curriculum. It may be valuable to look at objectives in three levels. Interactivity objectives are the board outcomes that are achieved over a period of many planned learning experiences. The second level, subordinate objectives, relate to behaviors that occur in one or a few learning experiences. The subordinates generally progress from simple to complex under an interactivity objectives and climax in achievement of the interactivity objective. The third level of objective is evidenced by the many expected student behaviors that occur during a planned learning experience.

Generation of objective frameworks constitutes a major challenge for the curriculum development group. The individual coordinating this aspect of the total experience must be a master at promoting the helping relationship. A team of six to eight writers may require a full week to generate an objective framework. During this time period a team can significantly influence the entire writing experience. If the interactions that occur during the objective writing experience can be channelled constructively an atmosphere of positive evolution will begin to develop. It is generally at this stage that overly defensive individuals find group consensus difficult to cope with. It is wise for the coordinator to then either council such individuals out of the team or attempt to save them for their special merits. For example, a very creative "idea" person may not be able to cope with objective writing.

The many factors influencing the curriculum philosophy, and the curriculum model all contribute materially to the objective framework. The resulting framework then becomes a major organizer for the writing experience. The scope of the curriculum is a reflection of the objective framework.

Once an objective framework has been generated the writing team begins to brainstorm activities and learning experiences that might facilitate achievement of objectives. This is an exciting and fun time for the writing team. All possibilities are entertained. Generally far more possibilities for achieving the objectives are generated than can be included in a given curriculum. As a result, only the best of experiences, as judged by the team, are written up. By this stage a writing team is usually functioning in a fashion that selecting "best" activities poses no major psychological hang up. The dilemma of the curriculum writer evidenced by need for deliberate choice ideally has given way to an esprit de corps and a sense of task that transcends unwillingness to make choices. The group will realize that they can produce ideas that fit into the philosophy - model - objective framework. A desirable goal for each participant would be the realization that each individual can make a contribution and that all contributions are valuable. Deliberate choice of alternatives does not preclude change or imply perfect choice, but rather implies a felt consensus and willingness to subject choices to further testing.

In a new program much thought must be given to format of materials. The format that frequently evolves is basically a teacher lesson plan with student supplements as dictated by the planned learning experiences. Once agreed upon, the writing team must conform to the approved format. An editor can correct minor discrepancies in style, but a maverick beyond this stage in the curriculum development process will cause considerable dissonance.

Writing learning activities to fit the objectives and ideas brainstormed earlier is a time consuming job. Experience has indicated it is practical to assign a pair of writers to an objective and allow them to write a first draft of learning experiences. All writers then review and comment on first drafts. A second pair of writers then rewrites the learning experiences for the entire team to review. The final rewrite is generally done by an experienced writer. A writing conference of about eight weeks with a team of 6-10 writers is needed to generate a year's learning experience.

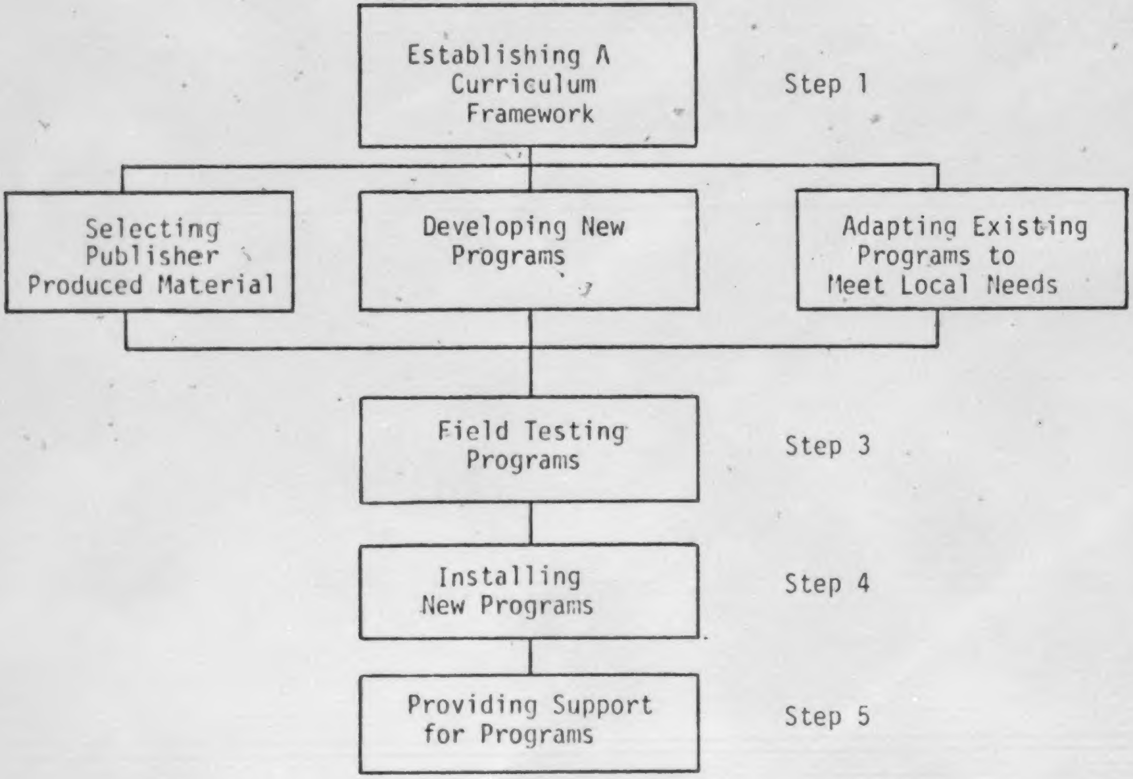
Evaluation items may be built into the curriculum as the team generates learning experiences. The third level objectives, consisting of expected student behaviors within planned activities, and test items related to these objectives grow out of the writing experience. These objectives and test items form the basis for evaluation.

The real dilemma of evaluation is the problem of adequate numbers of classrooms for field tests. In the BSCS experience materials are tested in a small number of classrooms the first year, then are rewritten on the basis of feedback, and are tested more widely the next school year. A third rewrite is carried out before materials are submitted to a publisher. It has been found that teacher and student feedback in the form of detailed comment and analysis of each activity forms the foundation of a curriculum evaluation. At the first level of testing teachers and classrooms are visited by an evaluator every week. Test items related to objectives are of value in measurement of cognitive aspects of a program. They also can be used to demonstrate that the curriculum has done the child no harm. This should be a minimal goal of evaluation.

The great asset of approaching curriculum development as outlined above is that in its group dynamics many possibilites may be entertained. Lacking are the kinds of funding that major projects have, but present is the committment of teachers to generate a curriculum with particular local emphasis. Training for the complete experience involves time and money.

The experience is summarized as follows:

Diagram 1: Steps in Curriculum Development


Establishing A Curriculum Framework
Step 1
Selecting Publisher Produced Material
Developing New Programs
Adapting Existing Programs to Meet Local Needs
Field Testing Programs
Step 3
Installing New Programs
Step 4
Providing Support for Programs
Step 5

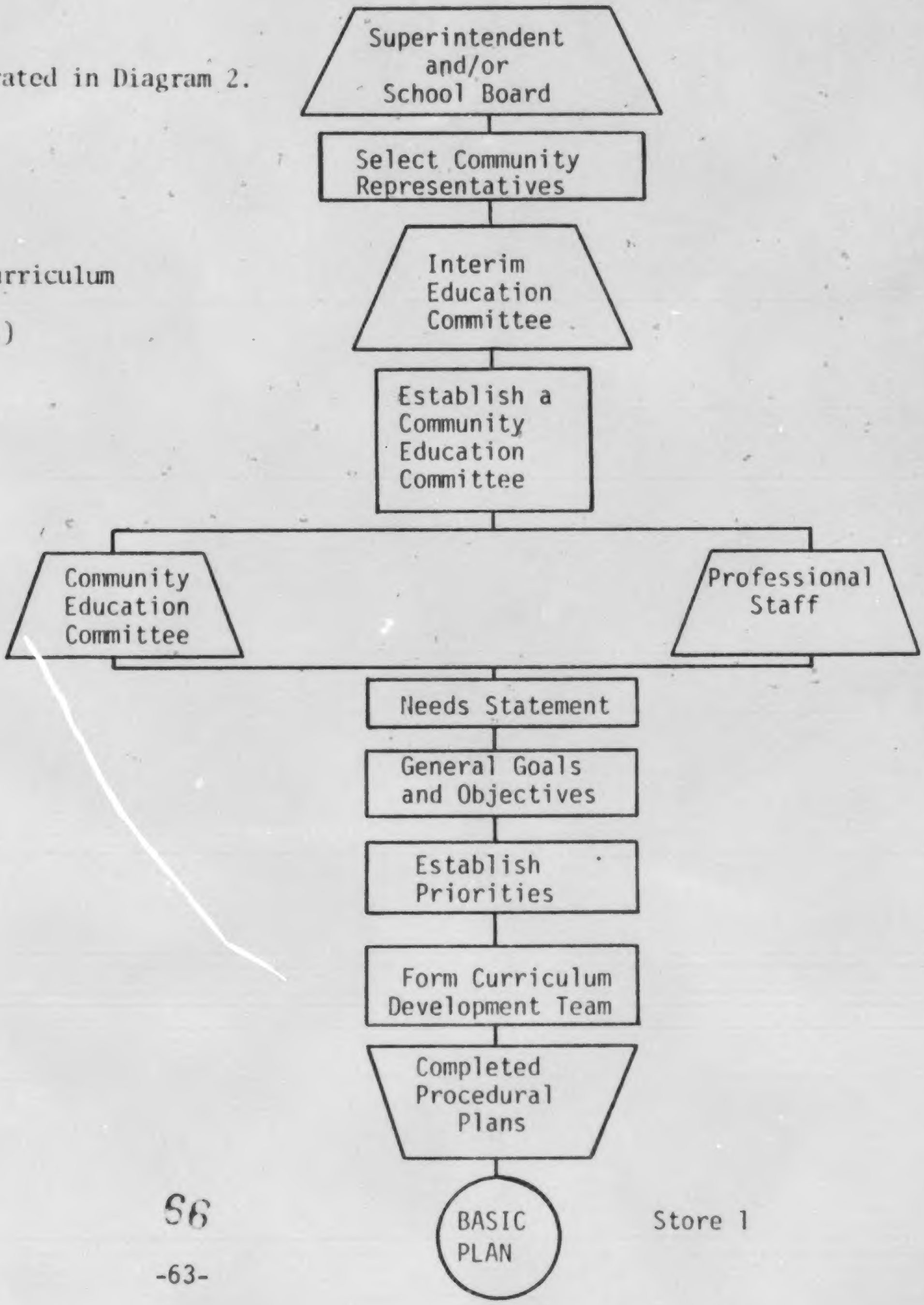
Step 1 is involved with determining who does what and how they do it. The intent is to have as much of the community as possible represented. Curriculum teams then determine philosophy, goals, objectives and priorities. The output of Step 1 is a framework that a curriculum development team can use for generating curriculum.

Step 1 is illustrated in Diagram 2.

Diagram 2:

Establishing a Curriculum

Framework (Step 1)


Superintendent and/or School Board
Select Community Representatives
Interim Education Committee
Establish a Community Education Committee
Community Education Committee
Professional Staff
Needs Statement
General Goals and Objectives
Establish Priorities
Form Curriculum Development Team
Completed Procedural Plans
BASIC PLAN
Store 1

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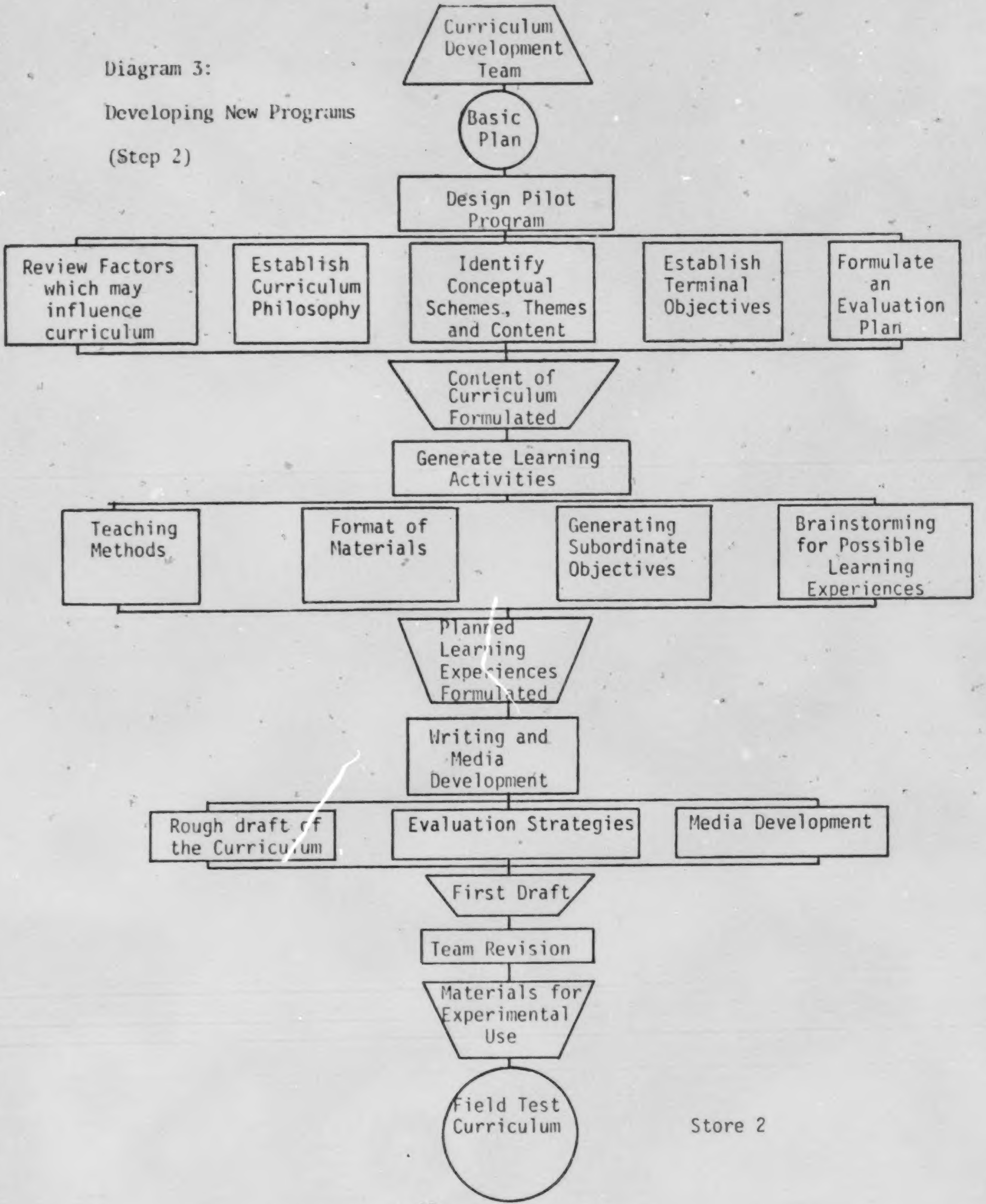
Step 1 has formerly been done by the professional curriculum developers. Even on projects such as BSCS-ESSP mentioned earlier, the teacher had little input at this level. However, this need not be the case. At the local level this is the phase where there can be real community input (2.5). The goal of the first step is to establish a curriculum framework that a team can use in step 2. Step 2 is summarized in Diagram 3.

Step 2 may vary as determined by local priorities. Strategies for selecting publisher produced materials and for adapting material to meet local needs are more familiar procedures than the development of new programs. The facilitiation of the development aspect does require experience. However, teachers have demonstrated to this author that they can perform the facilitator function in a school district once having gone through the complete procedure.

Diagram 3:

Developing New Programs

(Step 2)


Curriculum Development Team
Basic Plan
Design Pilot Program
Review Factors which may influence curriculum
Establish Curriculum Philosophy
Identify Conceptual Schemes, Themes and Content
Establish Terminal Objectives
Formulate an Evaluation Plan
Content of Curriculum Formulated
Generate Learning Activities
Teaching Methods
Format of Materials
Generating Subordinate Objectives
Brainstorming for Possible Learning Experiences
Planned Learning Experiences Formulated
Writing and Media Development
Rough draft of the Curriculum
Evaluation Strategies
Media Development
First Draft
Team Revision
Materials for Experimental Use
Field Test Curriculum
Store 2

A district supervisor or curriculum coordinator is generally responsible for Steps 3 and 4. Step 5 extends over a period of time. Flow diagrams for these phases are omitted in the interest of space. Much attention should be devoted to evaluation of all phases of curriculum development.

Characteristic of most of teacher developed curricula is low cost for student materials, lesson plan format for teachers, emphasis on integration of discipline, and application to local interests. Evaluation feedback is generally positive. Hawthorne effect or not, the students are motivated by such an approach. The end result, improved learning.

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CONCEPT TEACHING STRATEGIES IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

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The elementary curriculum contains a number of diverse types of goals, and probably one of the most important family of goals is the teaching of concepts. However, elementary teachers often are unaware that they are teaching concepts, or, if they are aware, typically use a single technique to do so. The purpose of this paper is to describe what concepts are and to present two concept teaching strategies for use in the elementary classroom.

WHAT ARE CONCEPTS?

Concepts are ideas that refer to a class or category, all the members of which share some common characteristics. For example, adverb is a concept that has the following characteristics: a word that modifies a verb, adjective or other adverb. We use these defining characteristics to decide whether a particular word belongs in the category or not. In addition to the essential or defining characteristics, examples of concepts also contain irrelevant or non-essential characteristics. In the case of the concept, adverbs, the irrelevant characteristics include the length of the word, how it sounds and whether there are more consonants or vowels in it. In other words these characteristics tell us nothing about whether a word is an adverb or not. In trying to learn a concept these non-essential characteristics represent noise which the learner must filter out to focus on the essential characteristics. These essential characteristics are important to remember because they comprise the rule for class membership i.e. they help to determine whether something is a positive or negative example of a concept.

Different writers have defined concepts in various ways. For example, Dececco (1968) defined a concept as a class of stimuli which have common characteristics. In the previous example the stimuli are the words encountered and the common characteristics are those features, such as modify verbs and adjectives, which make them adverbs. In the process of concept formation the stimuli or data used to form concepts may be objects, events or persons. Smith (1975) equated concepts with categories. In defining concepts in this manner Smith stressed the utilitarian nature of concepts; concepts are formed to help us describe and understand the world. The categories that are formed are based upon those characteristics and attributes which are similar and which are essential to a particular classification. Farnham-Diggory (1972) defined concepts as coding systems which we use to classify the stimuli from the world around us. In all of these definitions we can see an abstraction process in which similarities in objects are stressed and differences ignored.

To help the reader form a concept of the concept of concept (Think about that one for a moment.) examples of concepts typically taught in the elementary school are included in Figure 1 which appears on the following page.

Language Arts

homonym
antonyms
syllable
paragraph
declarative sentence
main idea
gerund
conjunction
plot
prefix
superlative
noun
adjective
rhyming words
main idea

Science

mammal
plant
evaporation
combustion
acid
base
fruit
energy
physical changes
chemical change
insect
convection
monocotyledon
seed
prism

Mathematics

set
rational number
lowest common denominator
circle
numerator
reciprocal
angle
radical
constant
variable
square
hypotenuse
even number
dividend
radius

Social Studies

family
city
state
tax
law
supply
demand
vote
democracy
monarchy
plateau
mountain
river
rainforest
agriculture

Figure 1.

Concepts in the Elementary Curriculum

Behavioral psychologists describe the process of concept learning in terms of the reciprocal processses of discrimination and generalization. Discrimination occurs when an individual makes a different response to different things, For instance, responding even to these stimuli, 2, 6, 10, 18 and odd to these 7, 15, 21 is a type of discrimination. Responding to a dog with the word dog, or a pat on the head but not responding in this manner to cats or cows or chickens would be another example of discrimination. The reader should note in the latter example that discrimination does not require the individual to respond correctly (e.g., with the words cat, cow, etc.) to those things that the concept is not, but merely to indicate in some way that they are different from the concept dog and therefore, should not be included in that category.

In concept learning, generalizing occurs when an individual makes the same response to different things. In a sense, generalizing is the rendering of dissimilar things similar. For example, the number six is three times as much and is also four more than two. However, two and six are similar or equivalent in that they both could be classified as even numbers. Chihuahuas, Dachshunds, and Great Danes are different in many obvious respects but are similar or equivalent in that they all are dogs. A person having formed the concept of dog through previous examples, who saw these three different types of dogs for the first time, and who reacted with the response "dog" would be generalizing. Generalizing can then be considered to be a process which encompasses all exemplars which the learner has never seen before.

To illustrate the process of concept formation consider a small boy learning the concept automobile. In doing so, he observes Volkswagens, Cadillacs, Checker Marathons, Porches, Hondas, and many other cars. Though these observations are not all identical, he tends (on the basis of comments by his parents and others, and basic similarities in appearances) to group these together into a class called car. In this grouping process, he generalizes from the individual cars to form an abstraction which is the concept. In doing this, the child first used the process of observation and then, on the basis of these observations, made a generalizing inference about all cars.

His concept of car, then, is the abstraction based on all his observations of cars. It is an abstraction because the concept that he has of car is of no particular example of car but rather a mental construct based on all the examples of cars he has observed. It is important to understand what a concept actually is. The concept is not any particular car nor is it any particular feature of cars, such as the wheels or body of a given car. The concept is an idea that is the result of abstracting from the concrete experiences the learner has had with cars. By forming this concept, the learner is now capable of dealing with or labeling one small portion of his observations of the world--those involving cars. As he forms more and more of these concepts, his understanding of the world, or his ability to make his world understandable becomes greater.

HOW DO PEOPLE LEARN CONCEPTS?

Basically people learn concepts in one of two ways. In a deductive sequence the concept is defined for the person by someone else and then illustrated with examples. In an inductive sequence the learner is provided with positive and negative examples of the concept and required to form the concept from these examples.

For example, an inductive lesson designed to teach the concept, quadrilateral might begin with the teacher presenting two groups of examples, figures with four sides and non-quadrilaterals. The teacher would then ask students to analyze the examples to identify similarities in the positive examples and to tell how these were different from triangles, circles and other negative examples. A deductive lesson on the other hand, would begin with the teacher defining the concept for the class and then would proceed with the teacher illustrating the concept with positive and negative examples. The difference between these two types of teaching strategies are summarized in Figure 2.

	Sequence of Concept Definition and Examples	Who Defines Concept
Inductive Strategies	Examples come first; then concept is defined.	Students
Deductive Strategies	Concept is defined; then examples are provided.	Teacher

Figure 2

THE GENERAL INDUCTIVE MODEL

The General Inductive Model as designed by Eggen et al (1979) is a teaching strategy designed to teach concepts through the use of examples. The strategy begins with the teacher presenting examples and asking students to make observations. Additional examples are then provided and students are asked to relate these to previous examples. In doing so students analyze characteristics and determine which of these are essential to defining the concept. Basically students are forming the concept here. Additional positive and negative examples are then provided for students to classify and students are then asked to provide examples of their own. These steps are summarized in Figure three and illustrated in the anecdote which follows.

1. Present examples and ask students to make observations.
2. Present additional examples and ask students to relate these to previous examples.
3. Prompt students to identify essential characteristics and define concept.
4. Have students classify additional examples.
5. Have students provide additional examples.

The General Inductive Model

Figure 3.

Mr. Waters, a fourth grade teacher, was preparing for his language arts class. His goals for that period was to teach his students the concept transitive verbs. He began his lesson by saying, "I'm going to show you two sentences and I want you to look at them and tell me how the sentences are different." With this he wrote the following sentences on the board:

> 'The infielder bobbled the ball momentarily and then threw it in the knick of time.'
>
> 'They were late again for the start of first period English'

"The first one is longer," said Jim.

"The second one has a plural subject," offered Mary.

"Isn't the verb in the first sentence in the past tense?" asked Kathy.

"But so is the verb in the second sentence. And we're suppose to be looking for differences," corrected Dick.

After writing these ideas on the board, Mr. Waters commented, "Those are all good ideas. Let me give you another example of the first kind of sentence and see if you can narrow your ideas down."

'The woodsman chopped the tree down.'

"Look at the sentences again," directed Mr. Waters," and tell me how the first and the third are similar?" Anyone? Look at the verbs and tell me what they're doing. Jerry? "

"They both express action?"

"Okay, replied Mr. Waters, "and what happens to that action? Diane?"

"It's received by someone, like the ball in the first sentenct and the tree in the third."

"Good, and what if I told you that these two verbs are examples of transitive verbs, how would you define this term? Kerry?"

"They're verbs that show action that's received by some object."

"Good, we call those objects direct objects because they directly receive the action of the verb and these kinds of verbs are transitive. Now take a look at these sentences and tell me if the verbs in them are transitive or not."

'She was late again for the third time.'

'The dog bit the man before running away.'

The lesson continued with Mr. Waters presenting additional examples and finally asking the class to present examples of their own.

This teaching anecdote showed a teacher using a General Inductive strategy to teach concepts. The next section describes another inductive concept teaching strategy, the Concept Attainment strategy designed by Joyce and Weil. (1972)

TEACHING CONCEPTS THROUGH CONCEPT ATTAINMENT STRATEGIES

In a Concept attainment lesson the teacher also presents positive and negative examples. In analyzing these examples, students form hypotheses about what the concept might be and then analyze these hypotheses in terms of additional examples. To illustrate this strategy I'd like you to assume the role of the learner and examine the examples below and determine what the concept might be.

The farmers reaped a bitter harvest.--Yes(this is a positive example of the concept.)

She didn't wait very long--No

Consider the positive and negative examples. How are they different? What are some hypotheses that are viable at this point? Write these below.

Some hypotheses that you might have mentioned are:

Transitive sentences

Sentences with a plural subject

Topic of farming

To help you determine which, if any, of these hypotheses is correct (i.e. accurately describes the concept), here is an additional positive example.

The sweet pain of first love was numbing to the boy.--Yes.

An examination of this new positive example will result in the elimination of all of the hypotheses above. Look at the two positive examples and see if you can generate any new hypotheses (i.e. determine what it is they have in common). To help you, the following additional positive examples are provided.

The over indulgence of the parents was nothing but
cruel kindness.--Yes

The blaring silence was disturbing.--Yes

By now you should be able to figure out that all of the positive examples have oxymorons in them. Oxymoron is a literary device which juxtaposes contradictory or incongruous words like "sweet pain", "cruel kindness" and "blaring silence." This particular concept was chosen to illustrate the Concept Attainment strategy not because it would normally be taught at the elementary level, but rather to give the reader a realistic experience with this strategy. The steps to be follow using this strategy are listed in Figure 4.

1. Present a positive and negative example.
2. Ask students to hypothesize what the concept might be.
3. Present additional positive and negative examples.
4. Ask students to revise hypotheses in light of new data.
5. Ask students for additional hypotheses.
6. Repeat steps 3 through 5 until the concept is attained.

The Concept Attainment Strategy

Figure 4.

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GROUP PLAY THERAPY FOR FUN AND PROGRESS

by

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Have you ever seen a child in conflict with a peer, teacher, or parent, and then watched to see what happened when the child went out to play? It is likely that the child used play as a means of expressing feelings, a way of working out what happened. Because the child uses play in this way, child guidance professionals have long recognized the importance of play therapy in dealing with children. Play therapy can be used with normal children who are experiencing stress and need help in learning to deal with it. The stresses of a new baby in the family, family illnesses, deaths, or simply problems with peers can be effectively dealt with by play therapy. Learning disabled children, handicapped children, and children with Minimum Brain Dysfunction can learn and practice new skills - motor, cognitive, and social - and enjoy the learning. Behavior disordered children and emotionally disturbed children can learn, through play therapy, to interact appropriately in their environment, to enjoy that interaction, and to feel good about themselves.

Play therapy, then, can be for any child. But what kind of play therapy? In the past, play therapy has always been a form of individual treatment. As described by Virginia Axline and Clark Moustakas, play therapy has traditionally been an interaction between one therapist and one child. The setting for individual play therapy is usually a play room with certain toys arranged on low shelves all around the room.

The child is allowed to choose toys and play with them for as long as he likes during the therapy session. In this setting, individual play therapy is non-directive. The child chooses toys and does what he likes with them, within the limits of safety, and the therapist is there chiefly to help the child get in touch with his feelings. The therapist listens, rephrases, and asks questions. She provides a safe, predictable, neutral environment in which the child can work, for indeed, play is the child's most important work.

In individual play therapy, the child plays alone or with an adult therapist. Group play therapy, a new form of play therapy as we practice it at Primary Children's Medical Center, introduces one or more children to the environment and enlarges the child's opportunity for interactions and growth. The child in the play therapy group learns to deal with problems in a more realistic environment. He learns assertiveness, social skills such as sharing and taking turns, and awareness of his own feelings.

The child in play therapy group learns these skills in a structured environment. The group room is simple and quiet, with a minimum of distractions and plenty of room to play. There is a work table for snacks and crafts, but furniture is limited and most of the group play is done on the warm, carpeted floor. Toys may be brought in from outside the room or arranged on shelves or in cupboards within the room.

When children enter such a room for group play therapy, the therapist's role is multi-faceted. As in individual play therapy, she provides a safe, predictable, neutral environment. In addition, the therapist interacts with the children and intervenes in a variety of ways. The therapist works with an attitude of acceptance and respect to "catch the child being good" and reinforce that behavior. She offers the child choices in activities and behavior whenever possible. She models, prompts, and redirects children toward appropriate behavior. She may use physical contact (holding, rocking, etc.) for restraint or support, as the individual child's needs dictate. The group therapist and co-therapist - usually one therapist for every two or three children - provide semi-directive play therapy. The therapist plans and structures the group activities to meet the needs of the children in the group at that time.

But how do we determine the needs of children? There are a number of assessment tools of varying length and comprehensiveness that are useful to determine the abilities of children of different ages. The most important aspect of the assessment tool used for play therapy group planning is that it is simple, fast, and easy to administer, for reassessment should be done frequently. With the first assessment, certain behaviors can be identified and baselined. Aggressiveness or on task behavior, for example, can be easily recorded. Later baselines of the child's same behavior can give an accurate picture of his progress in that area. Similarly, periodic re-evaluations of a child's motor and conceptual skills will provide concrete evidence of his skill development in those areas. Through these evaluations, the group therapist is able to structure activities that meet the common needs of the children in the play therapy group.

The activities planned by the group therapist fit within the general group structure. This structure is characterized by changes in activity level, child or adult control, and emotional climate. Quiet activities are alternated with noisy motor activities. The therapist controls the group, then the children are given control. The structure is predictable and safe even though activities within the structure may be quite new. Nevertheless, group structure is not inflexible, and the therapist who respects the children and accepts them as they are, allows them to participate in their own therapy and have a say in how the group progresses from one level of activity to another.

One group at Primary Children's Medical Center has a definite structure and definite rules for our 90 minute meetings. A close look at our structure may illustrate our philosophy of group play therapy and how it can be implemented.

Group Rules

1. We have group for 90 minutes.
2. Our play group toys are just for us, just to use in play group.
3. We treat each other like friends in group.
4. We stay in the group room until group is over.

Group Structure

Snacks:

Snack time is a time for the children to settle down into the group, a transition time. Food is a primary reinforcer for group membership and for coming to group. It is a relaxing time, a time of sharing with friends, a time for developing social skills. The children and the therapist feel the loving, emotional environment of the group. Snack time is an opportunity for cognitive and language development as the children experience new tastes, smells, and textures.

Songs and Games:

Songs and games continue the reinforcing social environment. The activities can be quiet or very rowdy. Through music, movement, and group games, the children can develop fine and gross motor skills, language, rhythm, balance. They practice listening and attending.

Free Play:

Free play is the child's time to control in an atmosphere of acceptance and respect. It is the child's time for self-expression and self-determination. Conflicts and stress are allowed to occur, and the therapist helps the children to deal with these situations. During free play, the children use selected toys for skill development: motor, cognitive, perceptual, language, and social.

Structured Activity:

The structured activity at the end of group is a return to a safe emotional environment, a return to adult control. It is a time for positive group experience and creative skill development.

Throughout this paper, play has been described as a child's work. However it is also a child's fun! It is not surprising then to note that the children seldom choose not to come to play group, and they often exhibit by their behavior that they are more comfortable in the play group environment than elsewhere. As the child learns new skills and changes old behaviors in group, the therapist notes the activities and interventions which are the most helpful for that child and communicates them to the child's doctor and parents. Parents are able to continue these activities and behavioral techniques at home, and thus help the child generalize his learning to his home environment.

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INVENTED SPELLING: THE 'WRITE' WAY TO READ

by

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A lot of very young children spend time scribbling with crayons, pencils, and markers. It is not uncommon to see children make rhymatic lines and squiggles and then "read" the message. The scribbling ultimately leads to letter formation and then attempts to write one's name. As children begin to discriminate letter differences on printed materials--T.V. and wooden blocks -they assign sounds to each letter shape. Many who experiment with the alphabet letters in this way begin to compose words and meaningful phrases, creating their own spellings as they go.

This early writing, sometimes called "invented spelling" is certainly not consistent with traditional spelling. But researchers have found surprising uniformity among children's work. What is equally surprising is that invented spellers use this communication as a creative endeavor before they begin to read. It is quite possible that they can not read back the composed words and in the earliest stages have little interest in doing so.

Children usually begin to experiment with spontaneous writing at about the age of four or five and may progress for several months. In Charles Read's dissertation, he studied 20 children who engaged in this word-play voluntarily and without extrinsic direction. He found that the parents neither prodded the children nor corrected their misspellings. Most important was the trust afforded the child's decision in an investigative atmosphere.

> In the attitudes and responses of the parents of their children's spelling appears the only similarity among these families that may be more than superficially related to the children's accomplishments. All the parents believed that their role was to provide opportunities, give help when asked, and to accept and enjoy the results...The materials provided in the homes at various stages ranged from blocks and movable-alphabet toys to blackboards and, of course, paper and pencil. No didactic or elaborate toys and certainly no kits designed to teach writing were in any home; what all the children had was a variety of opportunities, and once they had gotten started, they could be counted on to find unexpected ones--on their bedroom walls, for instance.[1]
>
> It must be emphasized that the spelling was truly voluntary. As far as casual interviews could reveal, none of the children was prodded by parents seeking vicarious satisfaction of their own need for achievement.
>
> All the parents believed that they had done nothing in particular to cause their child to begin spelling or to teach him to spell, except for providing materials, answering his questions, and occasionally asking a further question themselves...A thoughtful response to a child's expressed interest was all I ever observed in these homes.

Early spellers appear to have a sense that they can write all words (much as a child who has mastered a phonetic alphabet; for example, i.t.a.) and produce a logical story or message. From a linguistic point of view these spellings show striking evidence of not just pure phonetic relationships but uniform linguistic decisions which are common to all children. The following patterns may be tried:

1. In the early writing a letter name may represent both consonant and vowel:

   KT (kite or cat)   KM (come)   HS (horse or house)

2. Words most closely related to English spellings are easiest to produce with consonants making their own sound and tense (long) vowels using their letter name:

   TIM (time) DA (day) TO (toe) MI (my)

3. Words with l and r are written into syllable components by dropping the unstressed vowel:

   LITL (little) BRD (bird) HRE (here or her)

   AFTR (after)

4. Lax (short) vowels are usually excluded in the earliest spellings:

   BD (bed or bad) DD (dad) PG (pig) TP (top)

In later attempts the vowel is broken into two sounds; the initial part and the glide. The child usually uses the first of the sounds; for example, "a" is (ey). By removing the (y) the sound remaining is ĕ as pronounced in bed. Writing possibilities could appear as:

A is substituted for ĕ	BAD (bed)
E is substituted for ĭ	PET (pit)
I is substituted for ŏ	CLIK (clock)
I is substituted for û	MITR (mother)
O is substituted for ä	KOT (caught)
U is substituted for o͝o	TUK (took)
E or I is substituted for ə	BENANE (banana)
or	SRKIS (circus)

5. The nasal letters of m and n are omitted before vowels or before many consonants:

   NUBRS (numbers) STAPS (stamps) PLAT (plant)

6. CHR often replaced tr and JR is used in place of dr.

   CHRAN (train) JRM (drum) CHRK (trick) JRAGN (dragon)

7. D often replaced t in medial position:

   PREDE (pretty) LEDL (little)

8. In early writing t may be used for past tense

   DIPT (bumped)

   or used without vowel

   JUPD (jumped)

9. Some letters are used as they are pronounced:

   THAQ (thank you) YL (you'll) C (see) EZ (easy) B (bee)

A beginning writer may not intend to have the words read; they may be only a form of self expression. Davie wrote, I LIV PETE and drew a picture of the canary Petey that he loved. It was never shared, just enjoyed by Davis. Read said:

> "What an adult sees as an instrinsic connection--that what is written is intended to be read--often seemed to escape them. Some children wrote messages to others who they knew could not read. Although they enjoyed having their parents read what they had written (when the parents could read it) and sometimes used writing purposefully, their writings were usually messages intended for no one, stories apparently for their own amusement." (1970)

A major concern to some is the relationship between invented spelling and reading and more conventional spellings. "It appears, however, from the little evidence that is available, that the transition to conventional spelling presents no difficulty for either reading or writing. If anything, learning to read seems to be considerably facilitated for the spontaneous speller. In many cases, he quite simply teaches himself when he is ready." (Chomsky, 1975)

There is no reason why invented spelling can not be utilized in the school setting. A child who is allowed to make his own predictions of language first is preparing himself for the productions of others. This is the beginning of a true preparation for reading and writing!

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THE COOPERATING TEACHER A MOST CRITICAL FACTOR IN TEACHER EDUCATION

by

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Objective

The primary objective of this study was to determine if the concerns of student teachers become more like the concerns of their cooperating teacher during the student teaching experience.

Perspective

An examination of research pertaining to the cooperating teacher/student teacher relationship reveals that cooperating teachers do significantly mold the attitudes and teaching methods of student teachers. (Goodlad, 1965, Yee, 1967). Variables found to be significantly effected by cooperating teachers during the student teaching experience are instructional methods, classroom climate, classroom organization, and attitudes toward children. The consensus of research indicates that cooperating teachers do play a critical role in the shaping of student teachers.

The pioneering research of the late Francis Fuller (1970) and subsequent investigations have validated a three stage developmental model of teacher concerns (Fuller, 1973). The model posits that neophite teacher concerns are primarily focused on concerns about themselves and their own adequacy. It is only after these "self concerns" are somewhat resolved that the teacher is able to focus on concerns that relate to the tasks involved with teaching or "task concerns" When the "task concerns" are no longer paramount in the mind of the teacher, she is able to make a transition to the final level of concerns; "impact concerns." "Impact concerns" relate to the impact the teacher is having on students (see Figure 1). The model presumes that teacher or student teacher, with experience, will shift his concerns to successfully higher stages of concerns. This presumption, when combined with the established influential position of the cooperating teacher, should result in significant development of student teacher concerns during student teaching. But what types of concerns-changes will occur? Will the student teacher's concerns move into alignment with the concerns of the cooperating teacher or will they merely shift upward?

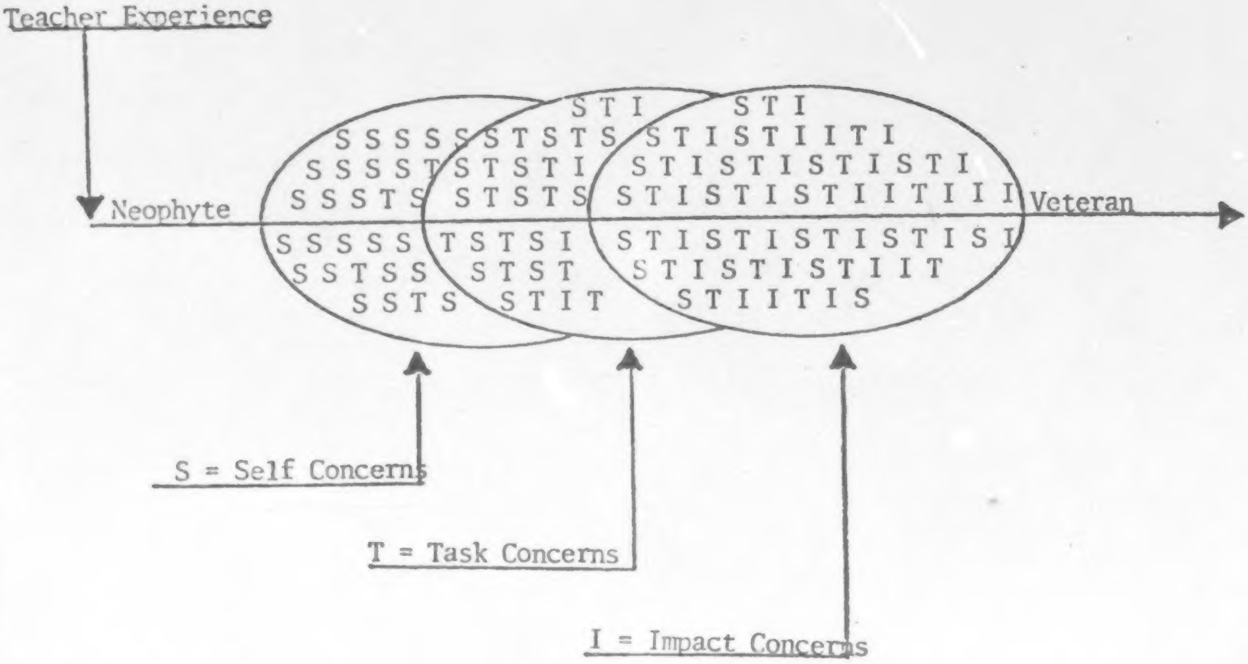
Methods

One hundred forty-two Brigham Young University student teachers and their respective cooperating teachers were solicited as subjects for the study. They completed Form B of the Teacher Concerns Checklist (TCCL) one week prior to the student teaching experience, and the student teachers completed the TCCL again one week after the eight week student teaching experience. The pretest-posttest design using subjects as their own controls, thus, produced three sets of complete data. The TCCL was scored for each of its

Figure 1

Three-Phase Developmental

Model of Teacher Concerns


Teacher Experience
Neophyte
Veteran
STI STI
SSSSSSTSTS STISTIITI
SSSSTSTSTI STISTISTISTI
SSSTS STSTS STISTISTIITIII
SSSSS TSTSI STISTISTISTISI
SSTSS STST STISTISTIIT
SSTS STIT STIITIS
S = Self Concerns
T = Task Concerns
I = Impact Concerns

three homogenous subscales and student teacher change scores were obtained. The data were treated using regression analysis to isolate a set of predictor regression analysis to test the research hypotheses. An a $\leq .05$ was set for the study with practical predictor ability based on an F ration four times that required for statistical significance.

Results and Conclusion

Cooperating teacher concerns demonstrated a significant relationship ($F > 4x$ required F @ $p \leq .05$) to changes in student teacher's concerns. These findings held for all three types of concerns tested. Student teachers consistently made changes in levels of concerns that brought their concerns into alignment with the concerns of the cooperating teacher to whom they were assigned. This supports the work of Yee (1969), Bennie (1966), and Price (1961). The decrease in student teacher self concerns and subsequent increase in task and impact concerns adds support to Fuller's developmental model of concerns. Further, the apparently independent movement of the three types of concerns would seem to add weight to George, Borich, and Fuller's (1974) contention that the three concerns subscales are independent.

Educational Application

It is recommended that the findings of this study be refined and used to select cooperating teachers and place student teachers. This could make student teaching a more profitable experience for the student teacher and lend some precision to cooperating teacher selection, a process that has long been based on the opinions of administrators and supervisors. The applications of the findings of this study could give teacher educators a chance for some directional control of student teacher concerns and, in turn, a better grip on the type of teachers they are producting.

A cooperative effort should be launched by teacher education institutions, school districts, and organizations representing classroom teachers to improve the selection of cooperating teachers and placement of student teachers. Without this sort of cooperative venture, no significant change in cooperating teacher selection and student teacher placement will ever take place. Cooperating teachers have been reluctant to submit to any sort of evaluation or assessment for fear of being judged. This fear seems to have been translated into mistrust by professional organizations and teacher unions. Teacher education institutions have lived in fear of offending teachers or teacher organizations because they are at the mercy of the teachers for field-based experiences for their students. The net result has been little significant change in student teaching in the last hundred years.

It is time that something is done to improve this situation. Perhaps use of these prediction equations and evaluation of the results of their use could be a first step toward a better understanding and improvement of what happens to a student teacher's concerns during student teaching.

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SELF-CONCEPT AND THE CLASSROOM TEACHER

by

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"In a free society, the worth of the individual is the point of reference for the determination of all educational policies."[1] Thus, a significant part of a child's education involves achieving a healthy self image. The classroom teacher has a responsibility to: appraise self-concept in the classroom; be aware of the characteristics of the self; provide an open, honest classroom atmosphere; educate students for citizenship and membership in society; analyze and work with individual differences; provide success experiences; equip a child with the variety of experiences in academic, social and physical areas required to provide him with some choice about the future; and, understand her role in self-concept development to personally exemplify a love of learning and emulate positive characteristics.

"The child's view of his environment and his place in this environment determines his reactions and his behavior."[2] He enters school with a preconceived notion of who he is and what he can do. The home provides his first environment for learning self-concept. Parental attitudes and cultural differences have already shaped much of what he is. But "the self is learned, and what is learned can be taught."[3] So the school becomes the second most influential environment on the child's entire development.

"Because the self is not instinctive, but is developed as a process of experiences, it is remarkably plastic, changeable, and possesses infinite capacity for growth and actualization."[4]

APPRAISALS

To affect self-concept in individual students, the teacher must know how to appraise behavior. It is possible to use both formal and informal techniques. Formal techniques are partially structured and would include: figure drawing, sentence completions, picture stories, self vs. self-ideal inventories, Q-sort, personality inventories, etc. Informal techniques include verbal evaluations: conversations, puppetry, autobiography; and non-verbal; observation, handwriting, speech, role in free play muscle coordination.[5]

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SELF

"Your self-concept is composed of all the beliefs and attitudes you have about yourself."[6] Because the teacher is a significant person in the development of the whole child, she must be aware of the characteristics of the self. William Purkey lists them as follows:[7]

1. Self is organized and dynamic.
2. Self is the center of the person's universe.
3. Everything is observed, interpreted and comprehended from the self's viewpoint.
4. Human motivation is a product of striving to maintain and enhance the self.

CLASSROOM ATMOSPHERE

The classroom teacher has the responsibility to educate the child for citizenship and membership in society by creating an open, friendly, well-organized, non-threatening classroom atmosphere in which a child feels free to work and create. That atmosphere needs to be based on challenge, freedom, respect, warmth, control, and success.[8] "If we are truly open to our students and accept them for who they are, then they too will begin to accept themselves as worthwhile beings--worthy of attention and love."[9]

Students need to feel a significant part of their environment. "Perhaps the most important part of creating a learning environment is listening to children, accepting their contributions and points of view."[10] They need to have a say from the beginning in the physical setting of the environment and the academic expectations. Students need and want to know what is expected of them and what they can, in turn, expect from the teacher. They need the chance to think out their own solutions and make decisions.

Canfield and Wells make these suggestions:

1. Perhaps most important is creating an environment of mutual support and caring.
2. They must trust other group members and the teacher to the extent that they can truly express their feelings openly without ridicule or derision.
3. ...they must recognize that they are valued and will receive affection and support.[11]

SOCIALIZATION

A significant part of a child's education involves learning a healthy self-concept, largely through a moral code of behavior which will enable him to function as an active citizen in modern society. Young people today need to be prepared to make choices in a more complex, technologically-advanced society than has ever existed. They most have the self-discipline and self-confidence to meet those challenges.

Most socially-oriented personality theorists would maintain that "...increasing acceptance of self leads to an increasing acceptance of others."[12]

The noted personality theorist, Alfred Adler, asserted that man is motivated by the desire to feel self-esteem as he achieves his personal "creative self." This is accomplished through a process fo socialization on which emerges from an innate desire to cooperate. But the desire must be nurtured and guided to achieve socially useful goals, by concerned, caring instructors. During each stage of developing socialization:

> ...every person derives conception of his group, the rules of governing behavior, and the identities of self and others. He also acquires the skills that enable him to work productively in complementary relations with others in his group.[13]

The process of socialization needs to begin early, and in young children is enhanced by "play." In this sense it is important to remember that "... children's playing is not recreation in the sense adults use the word. They are actually busy learning the general pattern of social relations within a given society.[14]

Observation of this free play of children is an important way the teacher can determine self-esteem. In a study of "Self-Esteem and Classroom Participation," the researchers found that self-esteem is related to participation in a group.[15] In relation to this, Lilian Katz lists seven needs basic to young children regarding the socialization process. They are: (1) The young child has to have a deep sense of safety; (2) Every child has to have adequate--not excessive--self-esteem; (3) Every child has to feel, or experience his/her life as worth living, reasonably satisfying, interesting, and authentic; (4) Young children need adults or older children who help them to make sense of their own experiences; (5) They have to have adults who accept the authority that is theirs by virtue of their greater experience, knowledge, and wisdom; (6) They need optimum association with adults and older children who exemplify the personal qualities we want them to acquire; (7) Children need relationships or experiences with adults who are willing to take a stand on what is worth doing, worth knowing, worth having, and worth caring about.[16]

Students needs to be instructed in civic, national, and world affairs. Social studies cannot be learned from a book, but must be experiences in a contemporary social content.

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AND SUCCESS EXPERIENCES

"The individual acts like the sort of person he perceives himself to be."[17] All children need recognition, friendship, and acceptance, and so does the teacher. Students needs to realize that their parents and teacher trusts and cares about them individually, and that, in return, she wants their trust and caring. This can only be achieved by open, honest communication. The ultimate goal is a pervasive trust relationship between student and teacher.

Once basic emotional needs are recognized and the process for meeting them is initiated, a student's academic needs can be evaluated and the student will be more responsive to academic guidance. That guidance can come in small or large group situations, or on an individual basis. Dealing with individual needs is not an easy task. Success in meeting needs often comes with experience. It takes some time to find out what works and what doesn't work with individual students. The teacher must become sensitive to changing environments, and flexible in her approaches.

To be aware of individual differences and needs is to be able to provide students with "success" experiences. There is no substitute in the world for the sweet taste of success. Everyone needs to enjoy the flavor, and students and teachers are no exception. If a teacher is sensitive to individual needs and interests, she is much better prepared to stimulate those opportunities. A new technique in meeting a need may be just the key to opening doors for students. "When we are able to free the individual from his defensiveness, so that he is open to the wide range of environmental and social demands, his reactions may be trusted to be positive, forward-moving, constructive."[18]

Recognizing talents and accomplishments is fundamental to helping a child to feel successful. Excellence needs to be recognized and promoted. Doing a good job in an area that is easy for the student will, hopefully, provide a success experience. As self-concept develops from that experience, the concept of "doing a good job" or "pursuing excellence" can differentiate to other areas. "...repetition of successful learning experiences on a short-term basis may influence the long-term development of the positive academic self-concept."[19]

VARIETY OF EXPERIENCES

A significant goal in education is to provide a child with a variety of experiences to enable him to become physically, mentally, socially, and academically acceptable within his culture, so that he will have some choice about the future. "When we understand that learning means involvement of self and not mere acquisition of facts, we recognize that there will be a wide variability in the meanings each person holds."[20]

If a variety of learning experiences are offered, the teacher can guide and nurture her students into developing self-discipline, self-awareness, and self-discovery, into a number of areas. It has been determined that, "...a student's self-concept influences his performance in the classroom."[21] Therefore, academic success and self-concept growth are interrelated.

In a test with one hundred twenty-eight kindergarten students, Wattenberg and Clifford found that "...measures of self-concept and ego strength made at the beginning of kindergarten, were more predictive of reading achievement two and one-half years later, than were measures of intelligence."[22]

Research has also indicated that the student's "Performance depends not only on how intelligent he actually is, but also how intelligent he things he is."[23]

At the conclusion of a test on the "Differences Between High and Low Achievers on Self-Perception" it was decided that self-perceptions are related to academic achievement. Instructors need to "help all students develop positive attitudes towards learning, assist them in setting specific objectives and long-range goals, and assist them in making frequent self-evaluations."[24]

At the time guidance rules for discipline are established, the student needs to be made aware of standards of evaluative procedures. Just as he takes part in formulating the rules for behavior, so should he be made part of the rules and processes of evaluation. The student needs to take a major role in the responsibility for his success and failure in learning.

Children are capable of much more than we generally define them to be. If realistic goals are established, children will rise to meet these goals. A child must have trust in the consistency and fairness of the evaluating process, take responsibility for his own learning, and feel successful in the stages of his pursuit of knowledge. "Competence feelings are produced when students are successful during learning experiences."[25]

If students are allowed to explore creatively, learning is more exciting, meets individual needs, provides success experiences, and fosters creativity.

"Creativity is a way of thinking and acting that is natural to the makeup of the human species...All children can be creative."[26] Creativity is encouraged by:

1. Encouraging children to deal with alternative solutions in life.
2. Providing a psychologically secure environment.
3. Offering the needed experience and skill in the subject area for the student to understand and feel secure in its components and variations.
4. Rewarding the creative act.[27]

TEACHER'S SELF-CONCEPT

Ultimately, the success of a curriculum in achieving the future "well-being" of the students is greatly determined by the student-teacher relationship. And therein lies the teacher's greatest responsibility. Students, in a classroom setting do not want a mother figure, though they may want a person who have some of those same loving characteristics; they do not want a "pal" though they may want a person whom they can depend on as a friend. What they do want is someone who they can trust and respect and feel confident in. "...the teacher is an important factor in the interpersonal field of forces which influence a student's developing self."[28]

To meet that challenge, the classroom teacher owes it to herself to be an example of self-confidence and self-discipline, from the way she looks, to the way she talks, to the way she acts. Her first responsibility, then, is to herself. "A teacher's success in working with children depends to a great extent on his ability to gain insight into and to accept his own emotions and behaviors."[29]

In a study completed on "Teacher Self Acceptance, Acceptance of Others, and Pupil Control Ideology," the researchers concluded that: "Both self-acceptance and acceptance of others often are assumed to be desirable characteristics of teachers."[30]

Children need a model. If they perceive trust, openness, friendship, courtesy, and neatness, they will return the same. The teacher needs to exemplify a love of learning and pursuit of excellence in order to guide her students in achieving those desirable qualities.

"There seems to be a general agreement that the teacher needs to have positive and realistic attitudes about himself and his abilities before he is able to reach out to like and respect others."[31] One principal and his faculty determined thirteen characteristics of a successful teacher. The successful teacher is a person who:

1. has confidence and fosters confidence in others.
2. enjoys other people as well as life itself.
3. can effectively communicate with other people.
4. treats students as he would like to be treated.
5. is flexible.
6. recognizes students as individuals and utilizes their talents to form a cohesive group.
7. is open-minded and willing to change.
8. does not over react to minor problems.
9. develops within students a feeling of accomplishment.
10. encourages and directs creativity in the students.
11. is knowledgeable of new methods of education and is ready to try them.

12. encourages the learner to approach learning with an open mind.

13. has well-defined purposes of education.[32]

These characteristics are important since: "Basically the self-concept is built from the interaction one encounters with others, particularly those who are significant to us."[33]

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THE TEACHER AS A COUNSELOR/HELPER

by

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As the teacher welcomes her new class of students the first day of school in the Fall, she will see new outfits, fresh hair cuts, looks of anticipation, expressions of excitement, and a large variety of physical differences. Less obvious are the students' emotional differences and internal concerns. For some, their world is safe, healthy, pleasurable and exciting. Other children live in a social milieu of personal problems which are real and devastating in their impact. In all likelihood, at least some of these students experience as a way of life such conditions as poverty and deprivation; parental drunkenness, drug and substance abuse, with attending behaviors; the threat or reality of divorce; depression and suicide; crime and condoning attitudes toward criminal acts; and various forms of child abuse and neglect.

Even those children coming from more stable and positive environments experience some anxiety and occasional crisis situations. All children have normal problems occuring from the process of growing, changing, and being human. They all have questions of varying degrees of intensity which are apt to be met or unmet depending to a large extent upon their home conditions. Gildwell and Swallow[1] estimated that 30 per cent of all elementary school children in the United States possess serious emotional problems. Lesser degrees of emotional disturbance among school children are estimated to reach as high as 50 to 60 per cent.[2]

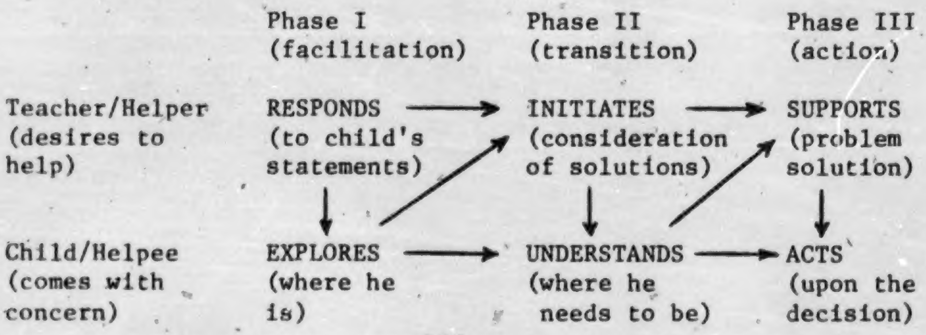
While the passage of time and the process of growing will diminish or dissolve some problems and concerns of children, most will not go away magically, and unsolved personal and social problems may result in a variety of maladjustments. The best time to help children with their concerns is usually when they are easiest to work on -- as close as possible to the time of their occurance. Children who live with conflict, timidity, hostility and anxiety come to expect failure which erodes their self esteem and seriously interferes with academic learning. This relationship between emotional problems and learning has been demonstrated by educators and psychologists for decades.[3]

The role of the teacher in dealing with children's personal adjustment has been a controversial issue. Emphasis on "life adjustment" has varied with each decade. Obviously, the teacher's primary concern must be to foster intellectual and academic growth in children. However, ideas are not separate from life. The imparting of facts and knowledge can be best facilitated in a climate where the teacher is aware of the child's personal adjustment needs. As Bettleheim[4] has indicated, children are not unhappy because they do not know the facts of the Napoleonic Wars, but rather because they cannot relate effectively to their psychological and social environment. The teacher occupies an ideal position to help her students use all of their resources to eliminate those adverse conditions that detract from their ability to learn. Most teachers want to be effective in educating the "whole child." According to Ausubel,[5] the school has "undeniable responsibility" with respect to children's personality development, since it is a place where they spend a good part of their waking hours, perform much of their purposeful activity, and interact in meaningful ways with adults, peers, and the demands of society.

Serving as a counselor/helper to students does not require that a teacher become a junior psychologist or therapist, only that she be an effective teacher and human being, with a willingness to acquire or sharpen specific helping skills. Obviously, helping children solve personal problems and make effective life adjustment is not a simple task. Success requires deliberate, planned and systematic effort on the part of the teacher and the child(ren).

The act of counseling/helping contains several phases or processes. One model of the helping process which has received wide recognition was initially developed by Robert Carkhuff.[6] It includes the actions taken by both the teacher/counselor/helper and the child/helpee as shown in this illustration:

Phases of Helping



	Phase I (facilitation)	Phase II (transition)	Phase III (action)
Teacher/Helper (desires to help)	RESPONDS (to child's statements)	INITIATES (consideration of solutions)	SUPPORTS (problem solution)
Child/Helpee (comes with concern)	EXPLORES (where he is)	UNDERSTANDS (where he needs to be)	ACTS (upon the decision)

The first phase of helping facilitates the exploration of where the student is; the second phase helps the student understand the transition from where he is to where he wants and/or needs to be; and the third phase helps him commit to a plan of action needed to get to where he needs or wants to be.

The first phase involves building a meaningful relationship which makes helping possible. This essential base is built by the teacher responding to the child's expressions with empathy, respect and warmth. This responding typically includes nonverbal indications of caring, such as squeezing, attending to the student's needs, and posturing attentively with eye contact associated with verbal expressions that indicate interest, understanding, and acceptance.

One of the most essential prerequisites to effective responding is listening non-judgementally to the child's exploration of important ideas and feelings. In order to fully understand the child's expressions, the teacher should notice the child's behavior (posture, tension, incongruence, voice tone, facial expressions), his verbal statements, and the underlying feelings associated with these expressions. The teacher then captures the essence of the child's feelings by using a specific feeling word(s) which communicates that she understands not only what the child has meant (context, ideas, meaning), but often even more important, what the child has felt, particularly about himself. ("You feel upset because your best friend is hurting you.") Thus, in order for the teacher's response to be most helpful, it should capture both the feeling and also the content or meaning of the child's statement. As the teacher responds accurately to a child's concerns, that child will tend to develop trust and will be encouraged to explore his situation (where he is) in more depth and specificity in preparation for the second phase of helping -- the achieving of a higher degree of understanding (where he wants and/or needs to be).

The second phase of helping involves the initiating of steps to get the child from where he is to where he wants or needs to be. The effective teacher, because of her preparation, maturity, wisdom and desire to help, is in a position to aid the student in initiating plans for problem solving as a follow-up of having laid a base of understanding through empathic responding and exploring.

In this sense, the teacher is helping to fit together the pieces of experience and help the child to personalize the problem and take ownership. As the concern grows more specific, the clearer the goal becomes, and the easier it becomes to develop a solution. The teacher moves beyond where the child is because of her helping position. This movement may take the form of interpreting, clarifying, exploring possible goals, considering alternatives, or making mild confrontation (looking at discrepancies), as a means of moving to deeper and more critical areas of exploration which are necessary in order to act and thus to bring problems to their resolution.

Often the teacher may bring an additive dimension to this phase of helping by appropriately sharing experiences with the problem. Carefully used, this teacher's self-disclosure may increase the human relationship support, communicate personal understanding and add insights and possible solutions. The focus of this sharing must be turned toward the child as specific plans and alternatives are explored and their consequences considered in the second phase of helping.

As a preparation for the third phase of helping, the teacher has developed a positive relationship with the child, has acquired a deep understanding of the child's problem, has identified constructive and destructive ideas and behaviors or concerns, has explored alternative solutions, has obtained from the child a commitment to follow the plan which will be chosen, and is ready to help the child determine a direction.

The options for problem solution tend to narrow as a consequence of associating the child's experience with the available alternatives. A choice of alternatives is frequently between two satisfactory possibilities as opposed to a right/wrong situation. Often, when a direction toward a goal has been determined, first steps, then intermediary steps should be established and supported to assure the child moves successfully in the desired direction. In this respect, each step may serve as a mini-goal in which the child is helped to understand what, specifically, is to be done. Assurance and support are often needed as the teacher follows up on action plans to help the child determine the degree of success experienced in solving the problem.

A teacher who chooses to accept the challenge of being a counselor/helper, assisting in personal problem solving, and focusing on emotional adjustment concerns is accepting no small task. Occasionally the nature of a child's problem may be such that "solving" it is impossible. In such a case, the preferred solution may simply be to help the child to accept it or to learn to live with it as effectively as possible.

However, problem solving is difficult in most instances and can be perplexing for both adults and children. In severe cases of emotional maladjustment requiring in-depth therapy, the child will need to be referred to school or community psychological services. School counselors, psychologists and social workers acknowledge the fact that the classroom teacher maintains the most ideal position in the school for influencing behavior change in children. They recognize the necessity for teaming as partners, serving as a resource and receiving referrals of severe cases. Even in such referral instances, teacher follow-up and support help will serve as a valuable aid in the child's progress and satisfactory adjustment.

For a busy teacher attempting to meet a variety of needs of a total class, individual consultation for helping each problem situation may create an impossible burden. Ideally, individual counseling by the teacher can be minimized if the classroom climate and activities are used as a means of fostering personal growth. School is part of life and presents life problems -- failure, disappointment, competition, rejection and sickness. The classroom in which a respect for individual rights, needs, and privacy is fostered is likely to reflect a helping climate to deal with these problems meaningfully. In such a class, group members may help present, clarify and share experiences with problems. Problem solving methods can be taught using a variety of methods. For example, the teacher may use carefully planned reading materials which utilize the therapeutic potential of reading on childhood adjustments.

The seeking for individual counseling/helping will not always come as a direct call from a child, but will be recognized by the sensitive teacher. Such sessions should permit privacy if required to protect confidentiality, avoid interruptions, and communicate to the child that he and his problem are important. Other more informal individual interactions may require only brief encounters and may take place in natural settings such as the playground, the hall, before or after school, and during recess or lunch period. The use of the telephone in the evening may also permit important encounters between the child and teacher.

Perhaps the most potent helping influence upon a child is the model of a teacher who is functioning at high levels of interpersonal competence. With effective personal living, a desire to help children personally, and acquisition and application of specific helping skills, the teacher may expect to see fewer discipline problems in the class, greater student academic growth and a greater sense of fulfillment in teaching.

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